

T H E
CRITICAL REVIEW.

For M A Y, 1791.

A Treatise of the Plague, containing an Historical Journal, and Medical Account, of the Plague at Aleppo, in the Years 1760, 1761, and 1762. Also Remarks on Quarantines, Lazarettos, and the Administration of Police in Times of Pestilence. By Patrick Russell, M. D. F. R. S. 4to. 1l. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1791.

AN hundred and twenty-five years have elapsed since England experienced the fatal effects of this dreadful disease, though in this interval it has twice affected France, appeared more than once in Germany and Italy, and continues its depredations in Asia, as well as the regions of Europe and Africa which are contiguous to it. From this long security we may be tempted to suppose that our manner of life, the state of the air, and consequently our constitutions, have experienced some change which had deprived this viper of his fangs, or rendered the poison harmless. Something may undoubtedly be attributed to the causes mentioned, but to rest in careless security would display the greatest simplicity and the most impolitic disregard to our own and our country's safety; or to try by experiment, whether the venom is still fatal, would be foolish and unjustifiable. Lest danger should again threaten, we ought to accumulate every medical fact, and that it may not reach us, we should attend to every prudential precaution; and, as the result of the political plans of the present period may be the renewal of our eastern commerce in the Mediterranean, a publication, like this before us, is peculiarly interesting. It will, we hope, induce government, to attend to the building of lazarettos, where, by a proper and effectual quarantine, less burthensome and tedious than merchants are now obliged to submit to with little utility, every risk will be prevented.

Dr. Russell resided at Aleppo during the years 1760, 1761, and 1762, when the plague prevailed; but during the first epidemic only does he seem to have attended patients at the bed-side. As he mentions his consulting some authors, in reviewing his papers, we regret greatly that he should have overlooked the Treatise of Chenot, who observed the disease

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during its prevalence at Breslaw, or that he should have paid so little attention to the Memoir of M. Samoilowitz on the Plague, which ravaged the Russian empire in 1771. From the later experience we have gained on this subject, we are convinced, that, with moderate care, the disease would not only not spread, but be very little more dangerous than a putrid fever.

Our author first gives an historical account of the progress of the plague and of its fluctuating nature, which ought particularly to be noticed in examining the nature of every epidemic suspected to be pestilential. It is a striking trait in every history, and we find that, when some cases may have given the alarm, the disease will appear to subside. Another solitary instance may occur at a distance, and all will be again quiet, till its infectious tendency is more clearly discovered and its nature fully ascertained. This fluctuation goes through the whole epidemic, only that, as there are always some ill, and some dying, it is, in the progress, less particularly observed.

‘ It was remarked before, that of all people the Jews appear to have the strongest dread of the plague; a circumstance in one light rather fortunate, no places being more favourable to its propagation than the habitations of the lower class of that nation. The houses are small, or, if large, the different apartments are crowded with different families. Many of the houses are more than a story below the level of the street, in a condition half ruinous, dirty in the extreme, damp, and badly aired, from the nature of the situation; and the wretched inhabitants are clothed in rags. When one of them is taken ill, and known to have the plague, he is immediately abandoned to the care of an attendant, and the rest of the family seek refuge, if possible, at some distance. The families lodged in the other apartments, all not having it in their power to fly, are obliged to remain, but avoid approaching the chamber of the sick, and restrain their children from going into the court-yard. Thus pent up, they suffer all the inconveniences of the hot season in the midst of perpetual dread, till at length, what often happens, they also are attacked with the distemper. It was not without horror I descended into these dreary mansions. The sick, it is true, generally found one of their kindred to attend them, an advantage they sometimes had over the more opulent Turks and Christians; but the mouldering walls and the sordid mattresses denoted want and misery; while the other apartments, at a few paces distant, were filled with persons, who presented themselves at the doors and windows, as I passed, with terror and despair portrayed in their countenances. This last circumstance was not observed in the keisarias of the Arabs, where,
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whether from dictates of religion, or different notions of the danger they stood exposed to, the people, in similar situations, maintained a calm intrepidity that might have inspired those with courage, who, as better informed philosophers, were apt to commiserate and shudder at the popular ignorance.

Perhaps the distressing state of the Jews may be owing to this cause, for we think we have observed that, in general, they are less subject to putrid epidemic diseases than Christians.

That the plague is a disease induced by a peculiar fomes, not acting remarkably as a septic, but a highly debilitating power, and distinguished by buboes and carbuncles, is a fact well known: the first class, as pointed out by Dr. Russell, is that kind where the debility is at once considerable, where the efforts of the constitution, in other words, the symptoms of the disease, are few, the course short, and the event fatal, without any swellings. The others go on progressively, and the sixth class contains those cases where the symptoms of debility are slight, and the eruptions soon appear, and heal without danger: the intermediate ones are those, where delirium, coma, anxiety, pain of the heart, and all the distressing train of symptoms intervene between the attack and the termination. The first kinds occur in the early part of the epidemic, and occasion the doubts and difficulties in discovering its nature; the last, at the end: when the disease declines, it is not that fewer are seized, but that a greater proportion recover, and, at last, few die. The constitutions seem habituated to the poison, and throw it off with ease, or it has lost the deleterious power which at first rendered it fatal.

Of the terminations, the inguinal buboes are most frequent, and men are peculiarly subject to this eruption: we suspect that they more frequently recover, and we find the right groin most commonly affected, as well as (though less clearly) the right axilla.

In the cure of plague, the practitioner in Turkey is greatly impeded by popular prejudices. The cold fit is usually short, and, in the first paroxysm of the hot fit, the patient is usually bled. This evacuation is repeated by the practitioners in that country, even after the third day, and sometimes later. Dr. Russell usually allows of one bleeding; and he tells us, that it does not hasten debility, or prevent the critical eruptions from advancing. We have already hinted, that the violent symptoms seem to be owing to the efforts of the constitution; and these of themselves may be undoubtedly fatal. The stomach is very irritable; and vomits not parti-

cularly useful, except perhaps a slight one at first. A constipation usually attends, which is found not to be injurious; but a laxative is sometimes necessary to quiet irritability of the stomach, and if that did not succeed, a saline draught in an effervescing state was often of use. Sudorifics our author did not try with very effectual methods, and he very candidly owns, that, considering the usual course of the disease, it is doubtful whether they were of great service, though more powerful medicines, with better attendance, might be successful. The mild continued diapnoë, described by Chenot, was highly useful in the epidemic at Breslaw, and particularly where Dr. Russell supposes it best adapted, when the epidemic began to decline. Bark and blisters our author used sparingly: cataplasms to the feet were more freely admitted by the Turks than blisters, and were commonly useful.

‘ In the plague, contrary to what happens in the small-pox, persons are liable to be infected more than once; not only at long intervals, and in different climates, but in the same town, in the course of the same pestilential season. This fact, which has been doubted formerly by some physicians, and by others expressly contradicted, has been long established upon the best authorities.

‘ That instances, however, of second infection are proportionally met with very seldom, may be inferred from their being wholly unnoticed by several practitioners, to whom an omission of such consequence to the history of the disease, can hardly be imputed; as well as from the popular opinion which prevails so universally, that a person once recovered from the plague is secure, at least in the same season, from being infected a second time.

‘ This popular error, which in as much as it encourages those who have once escaped with life, to expose themselves more freely in the attendance on others, may be said to have its use, is found to maintain its ground in countries where the frequent recurrence of the plague might be expected to have furnished proof sufficient to have long ago exploded it. But the opinion is common in the Levant; and so many who thus expose themselves remain unhurt, that a few instances to the contrary are soon forgotten. In Europe the popular prejudice is likewise predominant, and the persons devoted to the most dangerous offices are chosen in preference by the magistrates of the police from among those who have already had the distemper.’

In our LVIIIth volume p. II. when we examined Mr. Howard's work on Lazarettos, we had occasion to notice, among other observations on the plague, the facts in support of second infection. It appears from our author's accurate remarks,

remarks, that two infections, in the same epidemic, do sometimes occur, though very rarely; and from some local customs and prejudices, it is difficult to distinguish relapses from second infections. We must not leave the History of the Plague, without remarking, that children born, when the mother had the plague, have sometimes the peculiar marks, the buboes; and that, in one instance, a woman suckled her child through the whole disease, and recovered without injuring her infant.

The next part relates to medical contagion, and Dr. Russell examines, at too great a length, the opinion of the Montpellier physicians, who think that the disease was not owing to contagion, but to foul matter in the stomach, anxiety, and distress of mind. This visionary system is treated with too much respect; yet, as he observes, there are some circumstances, which seem inexplicable. There is evidently a state of the air, when the fomes no longer propagates the disease, when fatal effects are no more, and the symptoms of those formerly affected become mild and transitory. This, however, is the case with all contagions, and, in some degree, with every other disorder. Rheumatic pains will at once be mitigated, in every patient of an hospital affected with rheumatism, when the apparent state of the air is most unfavourable, and consumptions will, at some times, seem to recede without any cause. These are, a few only of the numerous inexplicable circumstances in the state of the air, and of the animal œconomy. The frequent plagues in England, during the last century, were, in our author's opinion, not the continuation of the same disease, but different attacks from foreign infection. Like the simoon, the baleful pestilence, in the places where it is epidemic, passes over the devoted country, and again ceases; but unlike the simoon, it is not immediately fatal, or rapid in its progress. Pestilential infection is probably not conveyed to any distance in the air; nor is it raised to a great height: it is communicated in the different ways in which all infection is conveyed, but is less rapid in the beginning of the epidemic, probably because infection from a recent body is always less deleterious than from fomites. The disease most commonly appears within ten days, but pretty certainly within twenty-eight or thirty days; when it begins to appear, the plague does not linger on ambiguously and insidiously like a nervous fever, but proceeds with rapidity.

The fourth book is on quarantines, and we were a little surprized to find the author stopping to prove that Europeans are really affected with the plague in the Levant, and that

various precautions are taken there to prevent its importation; but we were more surprized to see, in his quotations, some respectable writers of a very different opinion. As far as the origin of plagues can be traced, they are found to begin in the introduction of merchandize, or persons coming from an infected country. Dr. Russell proceeds to show the difficulties of attaining proper information, and the best methods of ascertaining the knowledge of the existence of the disease, and of guarding against its communication to distant countries, by means of merchandize. But these details can only be read with advantage in the work itself, which particularly deserves the notice of the legislature, as founded on the local and practical knowledge, which can alone enable any person to direct. In general, it seems to be the author's opinion, that no regulations in Turkey ought to preclude the employment of some precautions in this kingdom.

The establishment and regulation of lazarettos and quarantines next engage the author's attention, and he gives not only a history of what the legislature has done in this way, but adds excellent directions for the construction of lazarettos &c. The mode of quarantine, as at present performed, is an idle mockery, oppressive to the merchant, dangerous to the public, and may be productive of the most fatal accidents. The details in this book we find it impossible to abridge, and they would be mutilated by any partial selection.

The following book relates to the conduct of the police during the plague; and the principal object is the shutting up houses. At the first appearance of the plague in any town, all those, who wish to retire, should have sufficient notice, and every neighbouring town should be warned not to mix with, or receive strangers, without caution, or performing some kind of quarantine; at least carefully airing the cloaths. After these precautions, the rest should be left to the prudence and the humanity of those who stay; and though it should not be contended that the plague is not infectious, which is false, yet the certainty of infection, and the danger of the disease, should be lessened in the representations; and the most forcible injunctions respecting occasional airings, extreme cleanliness, and frequently ventilating the houses, should be given. Every thing that can support the spirits and confidence of the people, if not carried so far as to make them neglect reasonable and proper precautions, should be employed. In this way, with improved modes of living, and the medical skill of the English practitioners, we have little doubt, if the plague should ever return, its violence would soon remit, and its fatal consequences be greatly limited. But every part of
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this subject is fully and completely explained in the book before us.

Among the preventives, and to destroy the remains of the virus, fumigations have been greatly recommended, and are undoubtedly useful. But the simplest are the best; and, among these sulphur and charcoal are as useful as any. Our author, who is of the same opinion, gives us, however, the different receipts used in different countries. If we were to make any addition, it would be a small proportion of nitre, not so much because it furnishes pure air, as because it will enable the ingredients to continue longer burning in close places, expand the air more, and consequently convey the fumes into the minuter crevices. Of the personal preventives, there is a numerous class of expensive medicines of little use. Our author's advice is, in this respect, very judicious, and, as it will apply to other diseases that are infectious besides the plague, we shall transcribe it.

‘ A temperate course of life, and temperate indulgence in customary liquors, promise every advantage that can be expected from cordials and stomachics. To valetudinarians, hypochondriachal persons, and others of weak nerves, or disturbed digestion, something medicinal, besides wine, may perhaps become requisite for the bowels, and for preserving a constant and salutary moisture on the surface of the skin; but inanition and sudden changes in diet ought to be avoided; and all evacuations ought in general to be proscribed, in respect to those who are obliged to go into the way of infection.

‘ Terror, despondence, and other debilitating affections of the mind, have been universally held of most dangerous tendency in times of pestilence. On the contrary, a regular flow of spirits, a temper not given to anticipate evils, or, when they happen, to brood over them, and a lively hope of escaping the infection, are considered as the best safeguards against contagion. But these are not in the power of medicine to bestow; they are the blessings of natural constitution, and, where wanting, must be sought in a cheerful association with others who possess them, and by engagements that divert the mind from the contemplation of melancholy objects.

‘ As preservatives against the plague, issues have been highly recommended, and by some authors are represented as almost infallible. I never had an opportunity of seeing them opened on purpose, with this view; and perhaps when a person has been some time accustomed to them, they may, in some degree, lose their preservative effect. Multitudes of both sexes, at Aleppo had issues in their arms, it being there a very common remedy in a variety of chronic disorders: but, notwithstanding these

out-lets, numbers perished: and I did not remark that those who had them, were in any degree less liable than others to be infected.

• A similar remark may be made in regard to tobacco, so much recommended by Diemerbroeck, and others. The custom of smoking is universal among both men and women of all ranks at Aleppo. This too, from its being habitually practised, might perhaps lose part of its prophylactic virtue: at the same time, those who use it as a preservative, must always be supposed in some degree accustomed to it, otherwise the violence of its operation, on most persons upon their first beginning to smoke, might prove hurtful. It should further be observed, that the tobacco commonly used in Syria is much milder than the American, and that the oriental smokers seldom or never spit.

The conduct of the physician requires little explanation. Dr. Russell has told us, that the smell from the plague is not so offensive as in some kind of putrid fevers. We lose, therefore, the warning of danger, and consequently ought to be more attentive. Every breath should be taken at the window, and in the mouth some aromatic should be kept, which will occasion frequent spitting. In the worst cases, breathing through a thin silk handkerchief, dipped in vinegar, is necessary; and, after coming from the sick room, washing the hands and mouth, or if any bad taste is perceived, gargling the throat carefully with brandy and swallowing a little of it. In every infectious epidemic, something of a warm generous kind should be taken in the midst of the fatigue, between breakfast and dinner; and, in the plague, our author advises, the cloaths on returning from visiting patients to be changed, aired, and fumigated; the hair to be combed and fumigated, and the most careful attention paid to every part of the dress subjected to infection. In this account, we have joined a few of our own customs, which, from experience, we have found useful, to the directions of our author; but the whole system, in its utmost rigor, is necessary only in the plague. We have known infection, received more than once, discovered by having breathed nauseous air, which left a sickness and bad taste. By rinsing the mouth, gargling and swallowing a little brandy, it has been mitigated. If it remained, a few glasses of generous wine has lessened it; but if it continued in the remotest degree, an emetic, delayed no longer than the evening, has destroyed it. Confidence, however, is always necessary, for the apprehension which affects the mind, or goes farther than suggesting proper precautions, facilitates infection. Cheerfulness, amusement, and above all, frequent exercise in the open air, are highly useful. With these precautions, we should have

have little dread in encountering the plague itself: with these we have certainly encountered diseases little less infectious.

The Appendix contains cases of the plague, an account of the variations of the barometer and thermometer at Aleppo, and a comparative view of the weather in the pestilential years of 1742, 1744, 1760, and 1762. Nothing, however, can be gathered from this comparison, unless the phænomena in the other years had been adduced as standards. The mean heat of April in the three pestilential years was $61\frac{2}{3}$, the mean heat during Dr. Russell's residence $66\frac{1}{2}$.

On the whole, we have little doubt, but this work may be highly useful. Our safety ought not to lead us to be too secure; and in case of any danger from the disease, Dr. Russell's Treatise will afford the latest experience, the best and most rational assistance.

Travels in Kamtschatka, during the Years 1787 and 1788.
Translated from the French of M. de Lesseps. 2. Vols.
8vo. 12s. Boards. Johnson. 1790.

M. Lesseps was interpreter to count la Perouse, the celebrated French circumnavigator, who will, we fear, be no more heard of. After exploring the coast of California, the Sandwich Islands, &c. he returned to India; and in our LXVth volume we gave the fullest account that has hitherto appeared in England of his discoveries. The voyagers returned to the North in the beginning of the year 1787; they departed from Manilla in April, and we find them on the coast of Kamtschatka in September, where they left M. Lesseps to proceed with the dispatches to Europe. Since that time no accounts have been received from them, and we have reason to fear, that they have been entangled in the Arctic ice, and perished without leaving the least trace behind. Our author shared a better fate, but he purchased his safety dear, by passing, in the depth of winter, from the south-west extremity almost to the north-east angle of Kamtschatka; from thence, doubling the gulf of Pengina, the extremity of the sea of Ochotz, and passing down the western shore of the gulf, and of the sea, to Ochotz, and from that town to Jakutz, Moscow, and Petersburg. The travels of M. Lesseps are written with all the eagerness of youth, with all the zeal and enthusiasm peculiar to his country; but his descriptions, though highly coloured, do not, we believe, go beyond the truth. Those who feel with sensibility will describe with the same energy and animation.

Travels in Kamtschatka cannot furnish a very great variety,
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particularly in winter. The scene is almost always the same, for the snow covers hills, firs, or a barren unvaried desert. The rivers are not rendered cheerful by luxuriant banks, nor the plains diversified by habitations. The mild and gentle Kamtschadale inhabits in winter a gloomy dungeon, or his house for his summer residence is raised on logs. In either cases the habitation is black with smoke and soot, filthy from the remains of putrid fish, and the stench of a dismal lamp, while the inhabitants, promiscuously huddled together, inhale the fetid smoaky atmosphere because it saves them from the sensation of cold. Yet the cold is not always so dreadful as to confine them to their dens: covered with their fables or deer skins, they sometimes brave the cold of winter, and the violent sudden storms of that season. The last may be accounted for from the neighbourhood of the Pacific, or more probably from the numerous volcanos of the peninsula. The summer habitations of the Kamtschadales are styled Balangans; the winter ones, Iibas. The yourts are subterraneous habitations; but the internal arrangements of each are nearly similar.

The port of St. Peter and St. Paul is described with sufficient accuracy in captain Cook's voyage; and, in the journey from thence to Bolcheretsk, we meet with nothing very interesting, except an account of the baths near Natchikin. The heat, from the description, cannot be less at the conflux of the two streams than that of the king's bath, at Bath. The analysis is very imperfect; but the water seems to contain calcareous earth, selenite, and probably sea salt. Bolcheretsk, in the most extensive numeration, does not contain 80 houses, and there are not the least traces of a fortification: the whole number of inhabitants is stated at between two and three hundred, including about 60 or 70 coffacks, or soldiers, generally employed in repairing roads and bridges, and in other labour. What then must we think of count Benyowski's narratives? But let us transcribe M. Lesseps' account of this celebrated adventurer.

‘ During the troubles of 1769 he served in Poland under the colours of the confederates. His intrepidity induced them to make choice of him to command a medley troop of foreigners, or rather robbers, like himself, whom they kept in pay, not from choice but necessity. With Beniowsky at their head, they ransacked the country, massacring every one they met. He harassed the Russians, to whom he was as formidable as to his own countrymen. They soon felt the necessity of getting rid of so dangerous an enemy: he was taken prisoner, and it may be supposed they adopted no very lenient measures respecting him. Banished to Siberia, and afterwards to Kamtschatka, his fiery and vindictive genius accompanied him.

him. Escaped from the mountains of snow, under which the Russians supposed him to be buried, he suddenly made his appearance at Bolcheretsk with a troop of exiles, to whom he had imparted a spark of his own audacity. He surprised the garrison and took possession of the arms; the governor, M. Nilloff, was killed by his hand. There was a vessel in the port; he seized it: every one trembled at his aspect; all submitted to his will. He compelled the poor Kamtschadales to furnish him with the provisions he demanded; and not content with the sacrifices obtained, he gave up their habitations to the unbridled licentiousness of his banditti, to whom he set the example of villainy and ferocity. He embarked at length with his companions, and sailed, it was said, towards China, carrying with him the execrations of the people of Kamtschatka.'

The manners and food of the Kamtschadales are described more faithfully by the count, and confirms what we formerly remarked, that where he is not himself concerned, his narratives deserve some attention: the dress of the Kamtschadales we must describe from our author.

' Their clothing is the same. The outer garment, which is called *parque*, is like a waggoner's frock, and is made of the skins of deer, or other animals, tanned on one side. They wear under this long breeches of similar leather, and next the skin a very short and tight shirt, either of nankin or cotton stuff; the women's are of silk, which is a luxury among them. Both sexes wear boots; in summer, of goats or dogs skins tanned; and in winter of the skins of sea wolves, or the legs of rein-deer. The men constantly wear fur caps; in the mild season they put on longer shirts of nankin, or of skin without hair; they are made like the *parque*, and answer the same purpose, that is, to be worn over their other garments. Their gala dress is a *parque* trimmed with otter skins and velvet, or other stuffs and furs equally dear. The women are clothed like the Russian women, whose mode of dress is too well known to need a description; I shall therefore only observe, that the excessive scarcity of every species of stuff at Kamtschatka, renders the toilet of the women an object of very considerable expence: they sometimes adopt the dress of the men.'

The native inhabitants are below the common height, 'their shape round and squat,' their eyes small and sunk, cheeks prominent, complexions tawney, nose flat, and hair black. In short, they seem evidently to have been derived from the Huns. They are represented as indolent, good humoured, hospitable, and honest. They are patient rather than active in their hunting; but they attack their chief enemy, the bear, with sufficient courage. Their other prey, foxes of different kinds,

kinds, fables and rein deer, require rather address than courage; and the Kamtschadales have at least enough of these qualities for the purpose. The dogs of this peninsula are known to be the chief means of conveyance. They draw the sledges over the snow and ice in winter, precariously fed with dry fish; and in summer they provide for themselves; but on the return of winter they invariably repair to their former duty. Their sagacity is considerable, and their perseverance truly wonderful. In size and shape they are said to resemble the shepherd's dog, one of the most sagacious of the kind; and, in Buffon's opinion, the original stock of all the various branches. The description of the sledge and the method of driving occur in many different authors. The diseases of the Kamtschadales are the small pox and venereal disease, for which they are probably indebted to the Russians: consumptions, tumours, and abscesses of all kinds, are the effects of their climate. The scurvy is not known, probably from their use of the wild garlic, and the different acid berries of the higher latitudes. The fevers our author does not mention, and probably none but those of the inflammatory kind occur. The storms in November were frequent and violent: the most common winds were west and north-west, and sometimes the north-east. The tempests came from the north-west, and it must be remembered that the volcanos were on the eastern and south-eastern coasts.

They set out the 27th of January, having collected 300 dogs, of which 37 were harnessed to our author's sledge. The appearance of the country we have already endeavoured to describe, and their journey was only varied by Ostrogs, consisting of winter and summer habitations, whirlwinds and storms of snow, which darkened the air, and deep snow, through which the dogs could scarcely draw the sledges. In the journey, our author had occasion to see some of the remains of the idolatry of the inhabitants; the Kamtschadales keep an idol always in their houses, whose niche, if not so dirty as the other parts, owes this distinction only to its being less frequented. The chamans (forerers) have abandoned all the symbols of incantation, and practice their art secretly; but the imposture of inspiration differs little in the elegant temples of Greece, or the rude hovels of Kamtschatka. The dancing female Kamtschadale seemed to be actuated by a similar phrenzy, or emulation supplied the place of an heated imagination. The singular occurrence of meeting some Japanese in this sequestered spot is worth remarking. They were shipwrecked on the Fox Islands, and brought by some Russians to the peninsula; their manners were not, however, very different from

from those of the other inhabitants of Japan. After M. Lesseps left Gavenki, and turned westward across the desert, his distresses were numerous; and as all distresses in inhospitable climates are similar, our author's narrative greatly resembles Mr. Bruce's. The ground, however, instead of being parched by a tropical sun, was covered with snow; for the want of water we must substitute a want of the smallest shrubs for fuel, and the mortality of the dogs, from hunger, supplies in the picture the death of the camels from the same cause. The baggage in both cases was left in the desert.

Our pain and anxiety continued. We were in want of water. The only little brook that we found was entirely frozen up, and we were obliged to quench our thirst with the snow. The want of wood was another difficulty. Not a tree had we seen during the whole journey, and we frequently went a werst out of our way, perhaps for a paltry shrub not a foot long. We gathered all that we saw, for fear of finding none as we proceeded farther; but they were so small and so few as not to enable us to cook our victuals. To warm ourselves was out of the question. In the mean time the cold was extremely rigorous, and from the slow pace that we travelled, we were nearly frozen. Almost at every instant we were under the necessity of stopping to unharness the dogs, that expired one after another.

Our dogs were so weak, that we were willing to fatigue ourselves in order to relieve them, but they were seldom the more alert on this account. Our conductors could not make them go on without harnessing themselves in like manner to the sledge, and thus assist them to draw us along; we encouraged them also by showing them a handkerchief folded up in the shape of a fish. They followed this bait, which disappeared the moment they approached near enough to lay hold of it.

During this interval our dogs had been unharnessed in order to be tied up in troops as usual. They were no sooner fastened to the posts, than they fell upon their strings and their harnesses, and devoured them in a moment. It was in vain that we attempted to retain them; the majority escaped into the country, and wandered about consuming whatever their teeth could penetrate. Some died, and became immediately the prey of the rest. They rushed with eagerness upon the dead carcases, and tore them to pieces. Every limb that any individual seized upon, was contested by a troop of competitors, who attacked it with equal avidity; if he fell under their numbers, he became in turn the object of a new combat. To the horror of seeing them devour one another, succeeded the melancholy spectacle of those that beset our yout. The leanness of these poor beasts was truly affecting: they could scarcely stand upon their legs. By their plaintive and
incessant

incessant cries, they seemed to address themselves to our compassion, and to reproach our incapacity to relieve them. Many of them, who suffered as much from cold as from hunger, laid themselves down by the opening made in the roof of the yourt to let out the smoke. The more they felt the benefit of the heat the nearer they approached; and at last either from faintness, or inability to preserve an equilibrium, they fell into the fire before our eyes.'

The number of dogs was now considerably decreased; and at Poustaretsk, the first town on the north-eastern side of the gulf of Pengina, they could procure no provisions. A precarious supply of whales flesh enabled M. Lesseps to proceed, leaving the governor, who had hitherto accompanied him, and to whose presence he had often been indebted for the most material assistance.

Kaminoi is a town situated on the western part of the gulf, which stretches farthest into the continent: it has a kind of fortification, calculated only to exclude the rude inhabitants of the desert, who sometimes are troublesome. The neighbouring inhabitants are the Koriacs, and the Tchoukchis. Some tribes of the latter our author soon met, and they seem to be mild, benevolent, and uninformed. This people, it is known, extend to the eastern extremity of Asia, and were found in this spot by the English navigators. Modern theorists have supposed that they have furnished America with inhabitants, because their country is the nearest.

It is not easy to define the eastern limits of a wandering race, or to draw the line between the Tchoukchis, the Koriacs, or the Tartars. Their neighbours, the Koriacs, are, on the contrary, turbulent, insidious, and often cruel. Russia sometimes finds the tranquility of her eastern provinces disturbed by the latter, but seems to have little to fear from the Tchoukchis. These people are taller than the Kamtschadales, but not slender: their nose is not flat, nor their eyes sunk; but the little wandering colony that our author saw, is not inferior in filth and dirtiness to his former acquaintance of the peninsula. They are also equally indolent, and like all the uncivilized inhabitants of this district, fond of brandy in excess. The picture of a deceitful Koriac chief is too singular to be omitted.

'It is difficult to conceive of a man more completely ugly. Large and squat, his whole face seamed with the small pox, and various other scars, a sullen countenance, black hair, that joined enormous eye-brows, under which there was only one eye, and that sunk in his head, haggard and fierce; the other he had lost by accident: such is the exact picture of this Koriac prince.'

The

The fixed Koriacs are suspicious, cruel, and dangerous in the highest degree: the wandering tribes are more friendly. Their country is between Kamtschatka and that of the Tchoukchis, bounded on the east by the Oluterians, and on the west by the Tongoufes, &c. In their features they resemble the Kamtschadales, and are evidently Huns. Their marriage-ceremony is singular: the lady, whom the Koriac courts, is enveloped in numerous cloaths, and the lover is the slave of the family, till he can touch any part of her skin, while all the matrons assiduously watch to prevent him. It is probable, that the lady connives at, and assists his attempts to touch her, if it be only to be freed from the load of cloaths. Their religion is the common Manichæan system of savages. Many of the more southern Koriacs received our traveller with great hospitality, and assisted him with singular zeal: his journey was now more rapid, for he was in the country of rein-deers, and his sledge was frequently drawn by these animals. The water of the hot springs, which he met with on the western side of the gulf, was so acrid, as to take off the skin from the mouth and face. Could it be impregnated by the fossil alkali, calcined by volcanic heat? It is described as 'sharp', but not as disagreeable, or acid.

Our author, at last, arrives at Yamsk, and traverses, in a more genial climate, mountains and rivers yet frozen; but the warmth of the season rendered the ice less secure, and the journey was often highly dangerous. The passage over what is styled a cornice of ice on the side of a perpendicular mountain (that is, ice affixed to the mountain, when the water had been frozen at a much higher level than it stood at that time) is a little incredible. The difficulty of the path is too much exaggerated at first, to render the subsequent passage probable: if the first description was inaccurate, the passage may have been with some difficulty accomplished.

Before M. Lesseps arrives at Ochotz, we lose the assistance of the map prefixed to this volume, and we may now observe, that, through the whole, it gives the most inaccurate idea of the situation of the peninsula, and the direction of the sea. It is not difficult to perceive numerous contradictions between the map and the description; but, on referring to Mr. Arrow-smith's charts, the accuracy of which is undisputed, and they contain all the new discoveries of this exploring age, the faults of this map appear still more numerous. It fortunately happens, that M. Lesseps' journey is distinctly marked on these maps, and we mention it to recommend them to the reader who wishes fully to understand the travels of our author. Ochotz we are acquainted with from the accounts of former

6

travellers.

travellers. The town consists of wooden houses: it is far from splendid, and the port is small: the consequence of its situation forms the chief recommendation; but it is said that the government designs to remove the houses, &c. to some neighbouring port, which, with an equally advantageous situation, is more capacious. At present, (or rather at the time of our author's writing, in 1788,) some ships were building for a voyage of discovery, under the care of Mr. Billings, an Englishman, who had sailed with captain Cook. Their progress was, however, slow; it was supposed they could not sail till the last year. The workmen, the stores, &c. seem to have been brought from the Baltic.

After an attempt to proceed on his journey, frustrated by the floods, our traveller returned to Ochotz, and he stops to give some account of the trade of the Russians. When they had found mines in Siberia, they pushed forward, in hopes of farther riches; but, though they were disappointed on their particular object, the furs of the eastern shores attracted their attention, and induced them to form some inconsiderable settlements. These were disturbed by insurrections and rebellions, in consequence of the avarice and oppression of the governors; and the conduct of the navigators, who were sent on discoveries to the northern Archipelago is supposed to be more enormous. The present governors are said to be more mild, humane, and benevolent; insurrections and rebellions are consequently fewer.

After the final departure from Ochotz, the road lay through forests, on the banks of rivers, and often across them, through fords, frequently safe, but sometimes dangerous. The trees were chiefly willows and alders, but a few birches and firs were observable. The ice was now broken, and all the sublime horrors and the dangerous inundations which attend its breaking, were at an end. The cataract on the Yudoma may be formidable, but it owes the chief of its horrors to M. Lesseps' description: the fall is not above 20 feet.

Arrived in the country of the Yakouts, our author meets with cordial assistance and civility from the Yakout chiefs. He had long since travelled on horseback, and the lean half-starved horses of Ochotz were superseded by the numerous well-fed steeds of these Asiatic princes. Their yourts, their religion, and their manners, are, however, rude, irrational, and uncivilized. They retain the absurd superstition of their eastern neighbours, and they believe in all the ridiculous incantations of the shamans. Yakutz lies on the Lena, a river that crosses Siberia in the widest part, from the south-east to the north. On this river our author embarked and proceeded, in a less fatiguing mode

mode of conveyance, to Irkoutz, a city of Siberia, a little to the west of the western bending of the Lena, and in the neighbourhood of the fresh water lake Baikal. The boats are drawn by horses, or by convicts, condemned to this punishment, whose misery surpasses all description, but does not repress their vicious propensities. In this course, our author met the Tongouses, and his account of this people we shall transcribe.

‘ They are not so large as the Yakouts, and have the sunk eyes, flat nose, and broad face of the Kamtschadales. They are equally hospitable; their characteristic qualities seem to be frankness and good nature. In religion, they have the stupid credulity of the Koriacs, believing in all the absurdities of idolatry. The chamans equally obtain their homage and confidence: these impostors govern every where by means of the fears they inspire.

‘ After fishing and hunting, which in the season, oblige these families to be a little more settled, nothing engages their attention so much as their rein deer. These animals constitute all their wealth, and repay with usury the care bestowed upon them. They not only provide these people with food and clothing, but docile to the hand that guides them, they permit their masters, both men and women, to mount their backs, and ride them at a swift pace wherever they please. Instead of harnessing them to a sledge, like the Tchouktchis and the Koriacs, they train them up to carry in this manner, and make them obedient to the motions of a bridle twisted about their horns. The saddle is ornamented, and of the same size as ours, but without stirrups; it is fastened by a very weak girth, and the rider, when he totters, has nothing to support him but a long stick with which he strikes his steed: it is manifest that this exercise requires great skill. The baggage is put into small panniers, covered with rein deer-skin, and fixed to the saddle, which hang on each side against the flank of the animal. During the stay of the Tongouses in any place, the burdens are ranged methodically round their yourts.’

In a ‘step’, which he styles an uncultivated district, but is in reality, a low sandy desert, M. Lefseps found the Bratkis, a colony of shepherds, supposed to be descended from the Tartars, and equally ferocious and savage in appearance. Our author soon left a small branch of Lena, as it ceases to be navigable; and, from this cause, has led his readers into an error. Irkoutz is not on the Lena, but, on the Jenisei river, or on that part of the Jenisei where it is called the Tugunsko river. His quitting the banks seems to have occasioned his error. His account of the trade of Russia with China is sufficiently exact and full, but it is sufficiently known, and we may only men-

tion its present declining state. At Ochotz tea was sixteen roubles a pound, procured from Petersburg, where it had been brought from England or Holland. Our author's reflections on the re-establishment of the trade are judicious, but colonies, at such a distance from the metropolis, will always languish; and the kingdom, which cannot fit out two small ships for discovery, in three years, cannot fail being at the mercy of a more active marine power. It is not difficult to see, that England must, in the course of a few years, deprive Russia of the Chinese trade for furs; and the whole power of the Empress, on this coast, may at any time be annihilated by two English frigates.

Our author is now in a country, comparatively well known; and the rapidity of his future travels render him less able to add to the stock of our knowledge any new or interesting observations. We shall therefore only remark, that he proceeds westernly to Tobolski, Moscow, and Petersburg; from thence to France. We need not repeat what we have already mentioned, that his zeal and his enthusiasm seem not to have led him, in any important subjects, from the path of truth. His travels are interesting and entertaining; and the translator seems well acquainted with the subject and the language. As we have not the original before us, we can only add, that we perceive not the least reason to impeach his accuracy and his fidelity.

Whist: a Poem, in Twelve Cantos. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Bell. 1791.

THE Game of Whist, according to this author's hypothesis, is to be attributed to a gentleman of Yorkshire, remarkable for his taciturnity and reserve; who, like the Spectator, of immortal memory, threw away his rattle before he was two months old, and would make no use of his coral till the bells were taken from it. Being obliged to spend his winter evenings with a mother and two loquacious old aunts, he is supposed to have invented this fascinating game, and his design at last was crowned with perfect success. We were in hopes of finding some more satisfactory explanation of its first invention, and, indeed, with some more elaborate researches into the discovery and original mode of playing cards than we here meet with. A slight account is indeed given of their supposed origin; but in a poem of twelve cantos we had reason to expect the best information that could be collected on a curious and, we appeal to the club at Brooke's, a truly interesting subject. A scientific investigation did not possibly suit the author's lively genius, whose acquired learning we suspect to be

no way equal to his natural talents, though he furnishes us with quotations from a great variety of languages; from the Latin, Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, and German. Even Homer, Job, and Haféz, the Persian Anacreon, are laid under contributions towards embellishing this Poem on Whist; and the author has given himself the trouble of rendering Persian, Hebrew, and Greek letters into such English ones as correspond with them, by way of illustrating the text. As to the former languages we shall say nothing, for reasons best known to ourselves; but as to the latter, he certainly would have done better in giving the words in the original, than so careless a copy of them. Thus *παμφανέντα*, he renders *pamphaneenta*, *Ευρηκα*, *Hewraika*, &c. and assures us that the last word signifies *I have it*, and that lexicon is 'a poetical phrase for a dictionary.'

As the performance treats on a subject not hackneyed in the public eye, and possesses more than a common share of merit, we shall give a short analysis of it.—The author begins with censuring the folly of those who write on unfashionable subjects, which neither afford them 'solid pudding, nor empty praise, Among those that are fashionable, he first proposes 'the glories of Newmarket's plain;' then *cock-fighting*; and his fame, who first

' With more than nature's weapons arm'd his rage,
Taught him to death the bloody war to wage;
And made what once was but a dunghill fight
A strife which dukes can witness with delight!'

'Th' illustrious boxer's praise' is next mentioned as a noble subject, which, if properly executed,

' In time perhaps might royal notice gain:
And some bright year, the future years among,
With laureat honours might reward the song.'

This, however, he declines as too arduous an undertaking for his unpractised Muse, and 'the Art of Cookery is relinquished to talents better tried' on the same account. He concludes with fixing on Whist, whose praise he celebrates in some humorous lines, lays down the plan on which he intends to proceed, and concludes the canto very properly by an invocation

' To the bright spirit of immortal Hoyle.'

The next begins with some reflections on the invention of cards, and the difficulty of ascertaining the inventor of whist; and we could have wished this part had been more expanded. The story of Moody, 'the likely fire of Whist,' follows, and is continued to the end of the fourth canto, where he lays

down, in order to preserve that silence so essential to his happiness and the well-playing of the game, sixteen laws, which are to be found in Mr. Hoyle's Book of Statutes, and the validity and cogency of which are universally admitted. The statute laws of England would appear, we believe, to as much advantage in rhyme as those of the modern Alfred of the card-table. Here we blame not the author, but the subject. The case is different in respect to Moody's long speech, which concludes the canto. It does not agree with his taciturn character, evidently copied in some of the most striking outlines from that of the immortal Spectator.

The fifth canto opens with a humorous comparison between the slow progress of Milton's Paradise Lost, and the game of whist towards popularity. When Waller and Cowley were held in higher estimation than the former, ombre, quadrille, and basset were preferred to the latter. But at length an Addison and a Hoyle arose, equally eminent for critical acumen in their respective lines, who proclaimed their praise,

' And prov'd their right to universal fame.'

No less humorous is the author's digression to the playhouse, and scheme for the improvement of theatrical exhibitions. As it stands unconnected, it will suffer less by transcribing than most other passages.

' When fresh from college, in the crowded pit,
I us'd at first with panting heart to sit;
Whilst all the charms theatric pleasures boast
Had not as yet their virgin graces lost;
And ev'ry word I from the stage could hear
Was boundless rapture to my youthful ear;
How often have I curs'd the buzzing sound,
Which flow'd continual from the boxes round!
And wish'd our fine folks would adopt the mode,
Which travellers report prevails abroad*;
Where Whist through all the night in silence reigns,
And ev'ry box a gaming set contains;
Who, while more serious scenes their thoughts engage,
Have seldom leisure to regard the stage.

' But now (for time increase of wisdom brings)
How widely diff'rent is my sense of things!
Since knowledge of the world enlarg'd my mind,
And knowledge of the town my taste refin'd:
Yet still I curse—but not the charming sound
Which flows continual from the boxes round;

* ' See Dr. Moore's account of the opera at Florence. Let. 73.'

I curse those rants of wild unmeaning rage,
Which rise incessant from the noisy stage;
Which o'er the sound of modish tongues prevail,
Deprive me oft of many a curious tale,
And drown the smooth address of many a peer,
Before its meaning reach my anxious ear.
Here let me pause, a project to explain,
Which more than once has struck my fertile brain;
And which to publish, my impatient mind
May ne'er perhaps a fitter season find.

‘ That dome, whose managers incessant strive
To keep the public appetite alive,
And feed their guests, on each returning night,
With varied treats of ever new delight;
Where yet delight is often sought in vain,
And languor and disgust too often reign;
One simple change might to a temple turn,
Where pleasure's lamp could never fail to burn.
How rich a feast would ev'ry play become,
If, like a pantomime, the scenes were dumb;
And liberty of speech to none allow'd,
But those distinguish'd from the vulgar crowd;
Who, thron'd betwixt the galleries and pit,
In vaulted cabinets of splendour sit!
We should not then frequent the house to know
What Hamlet said a thousand years ago:
But flock to catch, in the politest way,
The news and scandal of the present day.
What perfect bliss from such a scheme appears
To all our faculties of eyes and ears!
The one delighted with the charms that flow
From graceful action, and the pomp of show;
The other ravished with the full display
Of all that wit and elegance could say.

‘ A plan which promis'd thus their toils to ease,
The slothful players could not fail to please;
Nor would it cost them one triumphant hour,
Or circumscribe their fascinating pow'r.
For sure the SIDDONS, whose expressive eye
Each pause of language can so well supply,
Requires no succour from poetic art;
To rouse, to soften, or to tear the heart;
Which, were it made of penetrable stuff,
Would find her gestures and her looks enough.
Nor less applause would crown the graces wild
Of sportive JORDAN, Nature's charming child;

Whose romps, tho' mute, would be resistless still,
And all the house with endless laughter fill.'

What follows is equally entertaining—It is, however, time to return to the subject, but not till the commencement of another canto.

' For this, tho' short, too much of sense contains,
Not to be kept apart from lighter strains.'

The comparative estimate of whist is resumed; and the inferiority of other games, such as loo, commerce, basset, quadrille, &c. &c. pointed out in a lively manner. Of the author's learning, we expressed some doubt; to his philosophy, at least in the following quotation, we readily subscribe. In his encomiums on whist he observes, that it required more thought and mental exertion than the games mentioned above; of course,

' But some will here object, that such applause,
So far from helping, rather hurts the cause;
Since all will grant that pastimes were design'd,
Not to employ, but to relieve the mind;
And therefore those that leave it most at ease
Have surely far the fairest claim to please.
But they that argue thus from sense depart,
And know but little of the human heart;
Which not in pleasure's self can pleasure find,
Unless it comes with agitation join'd;
Which basking warm in fortune's sunshine clear,
Sighs for the shifting clouds of hope and fear;
And tir'd with looking on the listless deep,
When lulled by summer gales to silver sleep,
Would rather far the tempest's fury brave,
When danger rides on ev'ry foaming wave.'

The use of whist in silencing tea-table scandal was noticed in the preceding canto. Its superiority in point of interest to other games is next pointed out. A third excellence, for which it is celebrated, is its independence on the principle of avarice, and, in consequence, its connection with œconomy. A story is introduced to enforce this position, but not very happily. It appears rather

———— ' To tend,
Against the cause it would defend.'

Cardelia, long used 'to routs and drums and such expensive gear,' is left a widow in very contracted circumstances, at the age of forty-one. A rigid œconomy is necessary for the management

nagement of her finances; but existence without a card-party cannot be supported. Must she no longer

— ‘ Her social band invite,
To pass in charming whist the tedious night;
And, when the business of the night was past,
Repay their presence with a slight repast!’

How to reconcile this difficulty, how ‘to keep her party, and her supper save,’ is the grand desideratum. A plan is at last hit upon for that purpose. The usual party is invited to ‘whist and supper too.’ The invitation is accepted with pleasure.

‘ Successive rubbers lengthen’d out the night,
And still the supper was not ready quite.
Till tir’d at last with one accord they rise,
With aching heads, and sleep-desiring eyes.
And now th’astonish’d lady strives in vain
Her guests a little longer to detain;
In vain regrets her good provision lost,
And somewhat mentions of a tedious roast;
While each politely hurrying down the stairs,
A total want of appetite declares.’

The same farce is successfully acted over and over again to her whist-enamoured company:—some cross event still prevents the banquet’s appearance. Unfortunately one of the party marries, and brings her husband, sir John Gormaw, in evil hour to poor Cardelia’s coterie. Rubber follows rubber, but no supper appears: at last, the knight’s patience being exhausted, and appetite outrageous, in spite of Cardelia and his lady’s intreaties, he rushes to the kitchen; but

‘ As down the steps with eager haste he goes,
No fav’ry scent regales his gaping nose;
No merry jack, still whirling round and round,
Salutes his ear with banquet-boding sound.
But when at last the kitchen door he gains,
Surprise and horror thrill his shiv’ring veins;
Nought there one sign of preparation gave,
But all was dark, and quiet as the grave;
Save what the glimm’ring moon reveal’d to view,
Which thro’ the panes a faintish lustre threw,
And shew’d the drowsy, long-expecting maid,
Half naked, nodding by the fire decay’d;
Where scatter’d embers feelingly declare
That one poor egg could scarce be roasted there.’

This discovery is attended with terrible effects. The company having thanked their hostess with a sneer for her princely entertainment,

‘ Then hurried off, and left the dame behind,
Not in the most contented frame of mind.
She curs’d Gormaw; she fainted, rag’d, and cried;
Nay some will go so far to say she died.
(It hurt her vanity to that degree):
And if she did—why so she might for me.’

This circumstance, considered as the moral of the story, is exceptionable, and the sprite who inspired Cardelia with an idea, the adoption of which terminated so unfortunately, is improperly styled a ‘friendly power.’ For certainly that oecconomy which proceeds from a passion for whist is not here exhibited in very fascinating colours, nor its advantages very clearly ascertained. Yet we heartily excuse the author for the laughable manner in which he tells the story. In the next canto the apparent facility and real difficulty of whist is considered. Memory, judgment, temper, are pointed out as the principal requisites. Many good observations and directions relative to the former are given in very pleasing numbers. Some reasons for rejecting an artificial memory, though recommended by the immortal Hoyle, chap. 21st, are assigned; and a man of

——— ‘ Burgher blood,
‘ Whose head was white with fourscore winter’s snow,’

the author’s tutor in the science of whist, is celebrated for his wonderful recollection.

The second peculiar requisite, judgment, furnishes a subject for the eighth and ninth cantos. It is observed that the rules under this head are almost innumerable. The duties of the leading hand are first pointed out.

‘ A youth just ent’ring on the stage of life,
And keen to struggle in preferment’s strife,
By one rash step may hurt his fortune more
Than all his future prudence can restore.
Thus will it fare with him whose want of heed
Sets off at first with some imprudent lead;
His influence lost he never may regain,
But oft his oversight lament in vain;
Whose dire effect may give the foe command,
And spoil the prospects of the fairest hand.
Stop then, my son, and ere thy card descend,
Reflect how much may on its fate depend;

Nor

Nor venture thus, by rash and wanton play,
The hopes of two at once to cast away.'

The doctrine of trumps, and of the strong suit, are next descanted on in a very scientific manner. Then, the duties of him who recovers the lead; of the second in hand; of the third, including the doctrine of finessing; of the last in hand; and lastly, the doctrine of calling, and of playing by the stages of the game, are treated with equal abilities. The subject of these cantos is certainly not adapted to poetic numbers: the author has indeed acquitted himself as well as could be expected: but several minutiae, requisite towards the judicious playing of the game, are omitted, we presume, from the difficulty or almost impossibility of hitching them in any tolerable rhyme. To remedy this matter a commentary, chiefly extracted from Mr. Hoyle, is annexed to each canto, in which the directions given in the text are enlarged and elucidated.

Temper, 'the third propitious power' requisite at whist, is the subject of the tenth canto; and the story of Smilinda is related, to shew the utility of preserving it. The mode in which a deal is played, that proves too severe a trial for her, is introduced; but will appear to no advantage if the reader recollects that of Ombre in the Rape of the Lock. The author, in order to make it more intelligible, has subjoined a view of the different hands in plain prose, and a scheme of the cards in the order they were played.

' Good Lord ! what arrant fools some people are
With all their stuff of prudence, sense and care !
In vain old father Time his influence tries ;
He makes them proud, but never makes them wise.
They fondly think that they should all things know,
Because they liv'd some fifty years ago ;
Nor once reflect, this age has other rules,
And other maxims than these formal fools.
Were it not grossly to abuse my pow'r,
I could rail on, and curse them by the hour.'

This exclamation, at the beginning of the next canto, proceeds from our author's being caught at his pleasing labours by a morose father,

' As great a pedant as you'd wish to see.'

The old gentleman treats * 'Young Graceless' with great severity, and insists upon annexing himself a lecture against

* It should have been observed that the author 'assumes the character of a vain, petulant, stripling, whose opinion of his own wit and abilities is so overweening, that he thinks they entitle him to fall foul of every thing that comes in his way.'—We do not perceive that he has made any exceptionable use of this liberty.

gaming to the poem, by way of antidote to the poison contained in it. With this lecture the last canto opens,

‘*Iratufque Chremes tumido delitigat ore.*’

These invectives, and the story of a fortunate gamester, taken probably from a real character, are written in a more elevated style than the other parts of the poem, which sometimes are rather too prosaic. On the whole, we are greatly pleased with our lively author, and shall conclude our article with the entertaining Postscript which concludes the performance.

Now, blest be Heav’n, the tedious lecture’s o’er,
And old square-toes will trouble us no more;
And yet I cannot leave you thus behind,
With such absurd impressions on your mind,
Nor wholly thus to his advice resign,
Until you hear a little more of mine.

‘Can there then be whose tempers are so rough,
Whose hearts are made of such unfeeling stuff,
That they could wish from our imperfect life
To cut the brilliant hours of painted strife,
And from the worthless world to drive away
The hopes, the pleasures, and the pains of play?
Let those who harbour such a strange desire,
To some obscure, sequester’d nook retire;
Where thro’ the tedious year no spades are found,
But those that serve to penetrate the ground;
No clubs, but those, with which some angry clown
Knocks, at a time, his fellow rustic down;
No hearts, but those with which in passion’s hour
The wanton boy displays his sovereign pow’r:
And as for diamonds, you in vain may call,
For there they never can be found at all.
There let all such their lives in languor waste,
And rail at pleasures which they cannot taste.

‘But ye that live in fashion’s polish’d climes,
In this great art instruct your sons betimes;
Let this be still the first of your regards,
Before their letters let them learn their cards.
Nor do I yet despair to see the day,
When hostile armies rang’d in neat array,
Instead of fighting, shall engage in play;
When peaceful Whist the quarrel shall decide,
And Christian blood be spilt on neither side.
Then duels too, or any other fray,
Might all be fought in this good harmless way;
Then pleas no more should wait the tardy laws,
But one odd trick at once conclude the cause.

Though

Though some will say that this is nothing new,
For here there have been long odd tricks enow.

' Thus Britain still, to all the world's surprise,
In this great science shall progressive rise,
'Till ages hence, when all of each degree
Shall play the game as well as Hoyle or me.'

Fugitive Pieces, by M. de Montesquieu. Consisting of the Temple of Gnidus, and Arfaces and Ismenia. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sewed. Longman. 1789.

THIS little volume contains the Temple of Gnidus, and Arfaces and Ismenia, an eastern story, now first translated from the French of Montesquieu. The Temple of Gnidus, our author has told us, resembles no other work. It is a prosaic poem, full of beautiful, but often too luxuriant imagery; of sentiments animated, tender, and seductive; of passion warm, eager, and impetuous. It is the work of youth, and adapted chiefly to that period when the imagination holds the reins, and when reason is, for a while, unwilling or unable to guide. Yet, at other times, the beauty of the descriptions may attract the readers of a more refined taste, and the pure classic model please the admirers of the productions of Greece and Rome. The Temple of Gnidus is, however, well known: our literary annals record many efforts to give it an English dress; and we are sorry to add, *as many* abortive attempts. The first of these was published in 1759, under the title of 'Miscellaneous Pieces:' its merits are mentioned in our viith volume, though many errors in the translation are not pointed out. Four years afterwards Mr. Sayer published the first canto of a translation in blank verse, and, after an interval of two years, the whole poem, extending to a quarto volume, charged at the price of a guinea *. The attempt was injudicious, and the execution very imperfect. In 1768, however, 'The Temple of Gnidus, translated a second time,' appeared, and its defects are noticed in our xxvth vol. p. 216. The author wished to amend the picture, and has, in some instances, added to, and in others omitted circumstances, according to his fancy. We cannot therefore consider the present attempt as improper; and we find the version before us equally accurate and elegant.

'An Eastern Story,' generally attributed to Montesquieu, and added to the late editions of his works, Arfaces and Ismenia, is now, we believe, for the first time translated.

* See Crit. Rev. vol. xv. p. 389, and vol. xx. p. 152.

' As monarchy, the editor observes, is always in danger of running into despotism, the author wished if possible to render even despotism useful. With this view, he has delineated a most agreeable picture of a despot who makes his people happy. Perhaps he flattered himself that some king, or queen, or minister, might read his book, and wish to resemble Arfaces, Ismenia, or Aspar: or to be themselves the models of a picture, equally delightful.

' Be this as it will, men may become despots or kings in their own families, in society, in the common affairs of life; we may all reap instruction from the spirit of laws and from this work.

' The author observed the influence which the ladies, now-a-days, enjoy over the opinions of men; to gain the disciples, he has endeavoured to secure the favour of the masters: he has spoken the language that is most familiar and most agreeable to them; he has written a romance; he has painted love as he felt it; sometimes impetuous, seldom gloomy, often sportful.'

It is a pleasing little tale; but it is the triumph of love, rather than the apology for despotism, or the manual of monarchs. We shall extract a specimen from the more familiar, as well as from the political part.

' But Ardasira had now no distrust; our hearts were knit together. And surely a love like this impresses an air of gaiety on every thing around; and because one object enchants us, all nature appears chearful and engaging. A love like this resembles that happy infancy to which every thing affords novelty, playfulness and pleasure.

' I feel a gentle transport while I am talking to you of that happy period. Sometimes I lost Ardasira in the wood, and found her again by the sweet accents of her voice. She decked herself with the flowers which I gathered; and I adorned myself with those which had been culled by her hand. The song of the birds, the murmuring of the fountains, the music and the dances of our young slaves, and a softness impressed on every thing around us, were continual testimonies of the happiness we enjoyed.

' Sometimes Ardasira dressed herself like a shepherdess without ornaments or jewels, and appeared in the charms of native simplicity. At other times she presented herself richly adorned, and such as she appeared when I was first captivated with her beauty in my Median haram:

' Ardasira employed her women in delightful occupations. They spun the wool of Hircania, and stained it with the purple of Tyre. An unmingled joy glowed in every bosom. We descended with pleasure to the equality of nature: we were happy, and wished to make all happy around us. False pleasures make men
haughty

haughty and severe, and such pleasures are always selfish. But true happiness inspires gentleness and benevolence, and diffuses its influence on every hand.'

' Arfaces was so anxious to preserve the ancient laws and customs of the Bactrians that he always trembled at the mention of a reformation of abuses; for he had often remarked, that people called that *law* which was agreeable to their own views, and whatever ran counter to their interest they called *abuses*.

' In the correction of abuses, he said, men often destroy what they pretend to reform.

' He was convinced that good cannot exist in a state except it be conveyed through the channel of the laws; that the only way of establishing a permanent prosperity is by doing good as the laws direct; and that the sure way of introducing permanent evil, is to commit evil in despite of them.

' He was persuaded that the duty of a prince did not so much consist in guarding the laws against the passions of others as against his own.

' That the general desire of rendering mankind happy was natural to princes: but that this desire was nugatory, if they did not continually endeavour to acquire the knowledge necessary to procure it.

' That, most fortunately, the great art of reigning called for judgement rather than genius; for a desire to acquire knowledge rather than extensive information; for practical skill rather than theoretical speculation; for a certain acuteness in discovering the characters of men, rather than capacity for forming them.

' That knowledge of mankind is learnt, like every other thing by an intercourse with men. That faults and vices cannot be hid always but with the greatest difficulty. That most men wear a disguise, but that it is in general so loose and ill fitted, that it must often leave some part uncovered.'

Whatever might have been Montesquieu's opinion of the monarchy of France, it is evident that from this and other works, that the picture in his imagination was of a different kind, or it discriminated the real constitution from the manner in which it was administered.

In this story there are a few passages where the translator, if not incorrect, has polished his language with less care: they are, however, very few; and, in the parts where we have compared it with the original, the version seems perspicuous, correct, and happy.

The Present Practice of a Justice of the Peace; and a Complete Library of Parish Law. Containing the Substance of all the Statutes and adjudged Cases down to the Year 1790, inclusive, which point out the Duty and present Practice of Justices of the Peace, Sheriffs, Under-Sheriffs, Clergymen, Churchwardens, Overseers, High Constables, Surveyors of the Highway, Constables, Headboroughs, and other County, Ward, and Parish Officers. By the Rev. Edward Barry, LL. D. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 6s. Boards. Symonds.

THE author observes, in his preface, that

‘ The late immoderate additions to the statute law of this country, abounding with penal clauses of the most oppressive kind, render an accurate performance on this subject not only highly useful, but absolutely necessary, to those who would wish to act with propriety in their respective offices and situations. The power of a justice of the peace is certainly much extended by a variety of modern acts of parliament, and the office is consequently become more respectable; but this accumulation of power and consequence is dearly purchased by the additional difficulties attending it.’

We are of opinion, with Dr. Barry, and for the same reasons, that an *accurate* performance on this subject is highly necessary: but the following implied sarcasm on the magistracy will, perhaps, not be relished by that worshipful body.

‘ Abilities, says the doctor, bordering on mediocrity, were formerly deemed a sufficient recommendation for a commission in the peace; but something more is now required, for a man to acquit himself in that station with honour and ability, or even with a tolerable degree of safety.’

The doctor, however, fully atones for this seeming reflection on that respectable body, by the compliment conveyed in the following sensible observations:

‘ If there are so many difficulties to be combated by the magistrates themselves, men of superior education and knowledge to the rest of mankind, they must still be more numerous and formidable to those in parish offices; if they have not an unerring guide to consult upon almost every occasion that may occur. The office of constable, in particular, is now infinitely more difficult to execute than it has ever been. The same acts of parliament which have created business for the justices, have equally contributed to augment the duty and hazard of a constable; but the latter has not, like the magistrate, acquired additional consequence and power, as a compensation for his augmented difficulties and dangers. All the

the modern acts of parliament which impose new taxes (and they are not a few) invest the magistrates with extraordinary power; and, in some instances, authorise them to give judgment in a summary way, in matters of as much importance as seem constitutionally to demand a trial by jury.'

Stimulated by the candid and ingenuous remarks of the author, as well as with the apparent display of legal knowledge, in his judicious preface, we have been diligent in our examination of '*The Present Practice of a Justice of the Peace.*'

Magistrates, and all other peace as well as parish officers, are regulated solely by the common and statute law; and the adjudications of the courts, where those laws are not otherwise sufficiently explanatory: hence adjudications, in difficult points, have the force of a statute, and are considered as established precedents; it being impossible for the legislature, even when an act of parliament has been an object of the minutest investigation, to provide for every possible contingency. Precedents may therefore be said to constitute a considerable portion of our legal code.

The common law of the land cannot be altered but by statute. And even a statute in the affirmative, without any negative expressed or implied, does not take away the common law; therefore the party may waive his benefit by such statute, and take his remedy by the common law.

The statute law is, however, perpetually fluctuating; revisions, alterations, and explanations are annually taking place; and new acts of parliament are as frequently promulgated. Should a person, in making the tour of Europe, or on any other occasion be absent from this kingdom three or four years, his knowledge of the English laws would be very defective on his return, however competent it might have been before his departure. Dr. Barry seems to have been aware of the objection, which may be naturally started against this work, or against any performance on this plan which may have preceded it, and has engaged to publish annually, price one shilling, a complete Supplement:

'A circumstance, says the doctor, which will have its due weight with the intelligent reader, as this performance will be regularly made perfect by giving the new acts of parliament and adjudged cases, at the conclusion of every successive year, for the trifling consideration above mentioned.'

It is also well known that precedents are sometimes disregarded, and the courts have ventured to decide directly contrary to what has been the prevailing and established custom: for example, where a person has been the highest bidder at an auction,

auktion, it has been the constant practice to admit that he was absolutely bound by such bidding, till another had advanced upon it. That doctrine, however, is exploded, as will appear from the following case; wherein it was adjudged, that a bidder at an auktion, under the usual conditions that the highest bidder shall be the purchaser, may *retract his bidding* at any time before the hammer is down :

• Easter 29 G. III. *Payne v. Cave*. This was an action tried at the sittings after last term at Guildhall before lord Kenyon, wherein the declaration stated, that the plaintiff, on the 22d of September 1788, was possessed of a certain worm-tub, and a pewter worm in the same, which were then and there about to be sold by public auktion, by one S. M. the agent of the plaintiff in that behalf; the conditions of which sale were to be the usual conditions of sale of goods sold by auktion, &c. of all which premises the defendant afterwards, to wit, &c. had notice; and thereupon the defendant, in consideration that the plaintiff, at the special instance and request of the defendant, did then and there undertake and promise to perform the conditions of the said sale, to be performed by the said plaintiff, as seller, &c. undertook, and then and there promised the plaintiff to perform the conditions of the sale, to be performed on the part of the buyer, &c. And the plaintiff avers, that the conditions of the sale herein after-mentioned, are usual conditions of sale of goods sold by auktion, to wit, that the *highest bidder* shall be the *purchaser*, and should deposit five shillings in the pound, and that if the lot purchased were not paid for and taken away in two days time, it should be put up again and resold, &c. (stating all the conditions).—It then stated that the defendant became the purchaser of the lot in question for 40l. and was requested to pay the usual deposit, which he refused, &c. At the trial, the plaintiff's counsel opened the case thus:—The goods were put up in one lot at an auktion; there were several bidders, of whom the defendant was the *last*, who bid 40l. The auktioneer dwelt on the bidding, on which the defendant said, “Why do you dwell, you will not get more.” The auktioneer said, that he was informed the worm weighed at least 1300 weight, and was worth more than 40l. The defendant then asked him whether he would warrant it to weigh so much, and received an answer in the negative: he then declared that he would not take it, and refused to pay for it. It was resold on a subsequent day's sale for 30l. to the defendant, against whom the action was brought for the difference. Lord Kenyon, being of opinion on this statement of the case, that the defendant was at liberty to withdraw his bidding at any time before the hammer was knocked down, nonsuited the plaintiff. Walton now moved to set aside the nonsuit, on the ground that the bidder was bound by the conditions

tions of the sale to abide by his bidding, and could not retract: by the act of bidding he acceded to those conditions, one of which was, that the highest bidder should be the buyer. The hammer is suspended, not for the benefit of the bidder, or to give him an opportunity of *repenting*, but for the benefit of the seller: in the mean time, the person who bid last is a conditional purchaser, if nobody bids more: otherwise it is in the power of any person to injure the seller, because all the former biddings are discharged by the last; and, as it happened in this very instance, the goods may thereby ultimately be sold for less than the person who was last out-bid would have given for them. The court thought the nonsuit very proper: the auctioneer is the agent of the vender, and the assent of *both parties* is necessary to make the contract binding; that is signified, on the part of the seller, by knocking down the hammer, which was not done here till the defendant had retracted. An auction is not unaptly called *locus pœnitentiæ*: every bidding is nothing more than an offer on one side, which is not binding on either side till it is assented to. But, according to what is now contended for, *one party* would be bound by the offer, and the *other not*, which can never be allowed. Rule refused.—Barry's Justice, i. 192.

It appears, upon examination, that Dr. Barry has not omitted to introduce the substance of all the modern acts of parliament; without which, indeed, this work would not only be defective but useless; and he seems to be equally careful to enrich his work with the modern adjudications of importance. Among a great variety of these we shall select a few. The first is respecting horses being sold at an *unsound price*: a knowledge of the decision on this point may, perhaps, be found generally useful:

‘ Michaelmas, 30 G. III. Lord Grantley v. general Ainslie. This action was brought to recover of the defendant 20l. as the price of a gelding. The counsel owned that the defendant was a gentleman of the strictest honour. The plaintiff, lord Grantley, had a hunter which was unsound, and therefore he wished to sell him. For this purpose his lordship sent him to Tatterall's. He was first entered, by mistake, as a sound horse, but the moment this mistake was perceived it was corrected; consequently when Mr. Ainslie purchased him he took him at risk, as the warranty was then expunged from the book. The reverend Mr. Fielding fully confirmed these observations by his evidence. He said likewise, that his lordship knew that the horse's eyes were weak; that he was worth 25 or 30l. and that, if he had been sound, he would have been worth 50l. that lord Grantley did not warrant the horse sound; that his lordship said he never would. Another witness said, that lord Grantley himself was at the stables the day

the horse was intended to be taken away. General Ainslie was then present, speaking to two gentlemen, and must have heard lord Grantley say, that he never would warrant this horse sound: he might be worth 50*l.* or he might be worth 5*l.* When his lordship was coming away, he told them they might take 20*l.* for him. Lord Kenyon observed, that this was a cause between persons of considerable distinction; but that it must be determined without any regard to personal considerations. That there was no warranty in this case was sufficiently proved. If the person selling goods knows of no infirmity in what he exposes to sale, he is not bound to disclose what he did not know, and he may therefore retain the price: but there was a middle case between these two extremes, and the jury would consider whether this was not that middle case. If a person knows there is some imperfection in a horse, and sells him for sound, I think, said his lordship, that person sins both against the law of morality and against the law of the land: he ought to have disclosed every infirmity which he knew. That lord Grantley knew this horse's eyes were weak, was evident from the testimony of Mr. Fielding. There was another question in this case highly important, and that was, whether, upon the evidence, it appeared that the price this horse sold for was adequate. If it was, he would not say that any fraud had been practised. His lordship stated the evidence on both sides that related to this point. He said the case was reduced to this, whether the price at which this horse was sold was adequate to the situation in which lord Grantley knew the horse was: the whole was bottomed upon this, that no man in possession of a secret fault of his property, ought to take that property to market, and take a sound price for it, when the purchaser would not have given so high a price had this defect been disclosed to him by the seller.—Verdict for the plaintiff 20*l.* ii. 428.

The following decision respecting the prevalence of custom in certain towns or places, to allow more than sixteen ounces to the pound, will be found useful. It is, indeed, a clear case that custom will not establish what expressly militates against several statutes; though this custom, in some places, has long prevailed.

‘Easter, 29 G. III. *Noble v. Durell and others.* This was an action of trespass for taking the plaintiff's butter. The defendants in their plea, after stating that Southampton was a corporation by prescription, and that they annually held a court-leet, or view of frank-pledge, at which a jury is sworn and continues in office till the next court, justified, as some of the jury, taking the butter under the following custom: “That every pound of butter exposed to sale in the said market, of the said town, within the said town, should be and ought to be of the weight of eighteen ounces;”
alleging

alleging that the butter in question weighed more than sixteen, but less than eighteen ounces to the pound. To this plea there was a general demurrer and joinder. After hearing the arguments of counsel, lord Kenyon, chief justice, said, in deciding this question, I wish not to be understood to say that a custom may not prevail that butter shall be sold in lumps, or yards, containing any given number of ounces; but the question now before the court is, whether a custom in Southampton, that a *pound* shall weigh *eighteen ounces*, can be supported in law. To say that it can, would be to violate all the rules of language, as long as the acts of parliament are to regulate this subject. This has engaged the attention of the legislature for five centuries, and they have thought it of the utmost importance that there should be one standard of weights and measures throughout the kingdom. Buller, Justice: The question here is, whether, when a person is selling butter under the specific denomination of a *pound*, he shall be compellable to sell *more than a pound*. Butter is directed to be sold by averdupois weight, where a pound consists of *sixteen* ounces: then how can a person, who professes to sell a pound of butter, be compellable to sell more than a pound. I am of opinion that the custom cannot be supported. Grose, justice, of the same opinion. Judgment for the plaintiff. i. 390.

In the last-mentioned case, Dr. Barry has introduced the arguments of counsel on both sides, and seems to have extended the article to an unnecessary length. It may be more useful on that account to the barrister, but perhaps not to the generality of his readers.

The doctor has procured a number of interesting cases in crown law. Among these are many modern adjudications. Under the title Forgery, we find several. By the case of James Bolland, at the Old Bailey, in February sessions, 1772, we learn that it is felony to forge the name of a pretended person, though that person never existed.

‘ James Bolland forged the name of James Banks: Bolland said, James Banks was a man of property in Rathbone-Place, and dealt largely in wines and spirits. But it did not appear that there ever was, in fact, such a person existing as James Banks of Rathbone-Place. The jury found the prisoner guilty of uttering and publishing the bill knowing it to be forged: but the court respited the judgment, and it was submitted to the consideration of the twelve judges, who determined against the prisoner.—Bolland was executed at Tyburn, on the 18th of May, 1772.’ ii. 187.

To indorse a bill in a fictitious name is forgery; this doctrine the author establishes by the case at full length of Edward Tuft, who was tried before Mr. Justice Nares at Leicester

assizes in 1777. This cause ought to be made generally known, as many have perhaps been liable to the severest sentence of the law, for a transaction which they thought perfectly innocent.

A singular case follows also in detail. Hillary 30 G. 3, at the Old Bailey, a forged draft was presented to a barker for payment, which, on expostulation, was pretended to be found. The proof, however, of the finding was far from being satisfactory, but the parties (two in number) were acquitted; they did not, however, escape without a reprimand. The case of Charles Ripley and William Dow in 1790. For the particulars of this trial we refer to Barry's Justice, ii. 189.

Under the title Forgery, we were surprised that the singular case of Dr. Dodd had not been noticed by Dr. Barry; and, in our own minds, accused him of a great omission. But we were in some measure reconciled with him, when we discovered the particulars of that trial under the head WITNESS. We are still of opinion, however, that we searched for it in its proper place, and that the doctor cannot offer any sufficient reason for introducing it where he has. It appears by this case, which is here clearly stated, that an accomplice may be a witness before a grand jury to support an indictment against a *particeps criminis*, and a bill so found is good, though the accomplice was not previously admitted an evidence for the crown, and was carried from prison before the grand jury, by means of a surreptitious and illegal order.

K. v. Dr. Dodd. At the Old Bailey, in February session, 1777, William Dodd, LL. D. was indicted on the statute of 2 G. ii. c. 25. for forging a certain paper writing, purporting to be bound in the penal sum of 8400l. and to be signed by the earl of Chesterfield, with the name "Chesterfield," and to be sealed and delivered by the said earl: and also for forging a certain paper thing, purporting to be an acquittance and receipt for money, to wit 4200l. and to be signed by the said earl of Chesterfield, with the name "Chesterfield." The indictment consisted of eight counts, charging the prisoner with having knowingly uttered and published as true, the said paper writings; and laying the offence to have been committed with an intention to defraud, first, the earl of Chesterfield, and secondly Mr. Henry Fletcher. The names of William Dodd and Lewis Robertson were subscribed both to the bond and the receipt as attesting witnesses of the signature *Chesterfield*. The prosecutors charged them with being equally guilty of the forgery; and from the evidence which was given against them on their examination before the magistrate, he committed them to Newgate as principals in the same felony; and bound the earl of Chesterfield and other witnesses in a recognizance to appear against and prosecute both of them as principals in the same degree. A
bill

bill of indictment was preferred at the ensuing session at Hicks's Hall, before the grand jury for the county of Middlesex, against William Dodd only; and the agents for the prosecution obtained an order from Mr. Deacon, the clerk of the arraigns at the Old Bailey, dated the 19th of February, 1777, and directed to the keeper of Newgate, commanding him to carry Lewis Robertson before the grand jury at Hicks's Hall, for the purpose of giving evidence in support of the indictment against William Dodd; and by virtue of this order he was removed to Hicks's Hall, and examined before the grand jury accordingly. The bill was found a true bill, and the name of Lewis Robertson indorsed among others on the back of it as a witness for the crown. On the 21st of February, the justices of goal-delivery at the Old Bailey, being informed of the order which Mr. Deacon had made, and of the transaction which had taken place in consequence of it, made another order, declaring that the order of the 19th of February had been surreptitiously obtained, and that it was illegal and void. Dr. Dodd on being called to arraignment on this indictment, submitted to the court, that as Lewis Robertson was in custody under a legal warrant of commitment, as a principal in the offence with which he was charged, and without having been admitted a witness for the crown by any legal authority, had been carried before, and examined by, the grand jury, by virtue of a surreptitious and illegal order; the indictment against him had been found on improper evidence, and, therefore, he ought not to be compelled to plead to it. The point was argued before Mr. Justice Gould, and Mr. Baron Hotham, by Mr. Howarth, Mr. Cooper, and Mr. Buller, counsel for the prisoner, and by Mr. Mansfield and Mr. Davenport for the crown. It was, however, ultimately agreed that the trial should proceed; and on the jury finding the prisoner guilty, the sentence was respited, and the question submitted to the consideration of the twelve judges. On the first day of May session following, Mr. Justice Aston delivered the result of their conference to this effect.—“The judges have met, and have fully considered the whole matter of this objection, and they are unanimously of opinion, that the necessity of some proper authority to carry a witness, who happens to be in custody, before the grand jury to give evidence, regards the justification of the goaler only; but that no objection lies on that account in the mouth of the party indicted; for in respect to him, the finding of the bill is right and according to law. Whether a private prosecutor, by using an accomplice in or out of custody as a witness, gives such a witness a plea not to be prosecuted, or can entitle the prosecutor himself to have his recognizance discharged, is a matter very fit for consideration, under all the circumstances of the particular case where that question shall arise; but it is a matter in which the party indicted has no concern, nor can he make any legal objection to the producing such a person as a witness; for the accom-

plice,

plice is, against him, a legal and a competent witness; and so was Lewis Robertson upon the bill of indictment found upon this occasion. The judges, therefore, are of opinion, that the proceedings upon that indictment were legal, and that the prisoner was convicted according to law." Sentence of death was passed on the prisoner on the last day of the session, and he was executed at Tyburn accordingly.' iv. 300.

The earl of Chesterfield was produced as a witness on the above trial, to prove that the name *Chesterfield* was not his signature; and on producing a release from Mr. Henry Fletcher, the supposed obligee of the bond, he was admitted to give his evidence.

Under this title (WITNESS) the doctor gives the interesting case of *K. v. George Crossley*, wherein it was adjudged that William Priddle, having been convicted in April session, 1787, of conspiracy, was not competent to give his testimony; and that a person convicted on an indictment of conspiracy, cannot be a witness. To give the particulars of the case would extend this article beyond reasonable bounds: the reader is therefore referred to *Barry's Justice*, iv. 302.

Under the title HOMICIDE, we find a number of cases which we do not remember to have seen in any other performance of this kind. Among these are the following: 1. *K. v. Mary Adey*, for the wilful murder of William Barnet, tried in September session, 1779. 2. *K. v. Hodgson and others*. 3. *K. v. Stephen Self*, for murdering his apprentice, by means of famine and harsh treatment, tried in February session, 1776. 4. *K. v. Woodcock*, for the murder of his wife, at the Old Bailey, January session, 1789, wherein a new point seems established; that in murder, the declarations of the deceased after the mortal wound is given, may be received in evidence, though the party did not express any apprehension of approaching dissolution. 5. *K. v. John Brown*, in 1776. 6. *K. v. Henrietta Radbourne*, at the Old Bailey, in July sessions, 1787, for the murder of Hannah Morgan her mistress. This case is rendered remarkable from this particular circumstance. She was indicted for petit treason and murder combined in one count, and found guilty of the murder, though acquitted of the treason. After a reference to the twelve judges, she received sentence, and was executed as a murderer. We can only mention these cases, but Dr. Barry has given them very circumstantially.

As cases in the crown law are very essential to magistrates and others, we shall notice a few others among the many which are dispersed throughout the work. We are induced to do this because similar works which have preceded this, are extremely defective in that particular; Foster being the latest crown-law reporter

reporter, that has been consulted by the authors of them. Under the title INDICTMENT, we find the case of K. v. major Semple, in July session, 1786, wherein the indictment was quashed, because the addition was placed after the *alias dictus*, and not after the name. 2. K. v. Davis, at Hereford summer assizes, 1788. In this case it was adjudged, that an indictment on the black act for shooting at any person, must charge that the offence was done wilfully and maliciously. The charge in this indictment was, unlawfully, maliciously, and feloniously. This was a case reserved for the opinion of the twelve judges, who gave their opinion in 1789, that the not pursuing the words of the statute was fatal to the validity of the indictment. The prisoner was, therefore, ordered to be discharged. The particulars would be interesting, could we give them at large, as the doctor has done. 3. K. v. Catherine Graham, at the Old Bailey, in February sessions, 1772, it was determined, that a relative, referring with equal uncertainty to two antecedents, will vitiate an indictment: the indictment charged the principals with *two* distinct felonies; and the accessory with harbouring these principals, well knowing that they had committed *the* felony aforesaid. The prisoner was discharged after a reference to the twelve judges. ii. 509.

Under LARCENY we find the case of K. v. Justin Harvey, for horse-stealing, at Chelmsford summer assize, 1787, wherein it was determined (by the concurrence of the twelve judges) that if a horse be purchased and delivered to the buyer, it is not felony, though he immediately ride away with it without paying the purchase-money. 2. K. v. James Lampier, for taking from the hon. Mrs. Albina Hobart, one gold ear-ring, set with diamonds. A remarkable case also referred to the opinion of the twelve judges. 3. K. v. Henry Collet, 1782. 4. K. v. Thomas Halsel. 5. K. v. Elizabeth Thompson and Mary Mac Daniel, at the Old Bailey, September sessions, 1784. 6. K. v. Mary Davidson. 7. K. v. Ann Guy, in April sessions, 1782, who was indicted for receiving two guineas, well knowing them to have been stolen. She was acquitted, because money cannot be deemed goods and chattels. 8. And in the case of K. v. William Morris, in July session, 1787, it was determined by a majority of the judges, (lord Mansfield and lord chief baron Eyre being absent) that bank-notes are not goods and chattels within the meaning of the statutes of 3 W. c. 9, and 5 Anne c. 31.—iii. 42.

Having mentioned several cases under a few heads, out of the great number of which this work is composed, we think we have conveyed an adequate idea of its general merits. We have only to add, that the performance before us is such as we have often wished to see, and such as, till now, we almost despaired of ever seeing.

The History of Derby; from the remote Ages of Antiquity, to the year 1791, describing its Situation, Air, Soil, Water, Streets, Buildings, and Government, with the illustrious Families which have inherited its Honours, &c. By W. Hutton, F. A. S. S. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1791.

LOCAL histories are generally written by men who have a particular attachment to the places of which they deliver an account, and this is avowedly the case with the author of the work now before us. Mr. Hutton's strong propensity to topographical researches became known to us on a former occasion*, when we were entertained with a minute description of the celebrated Bosworth-field, which he seemed to contemplate with a degree of antiquarian enthusiasm. The same ardor continues to animate him in the present investigation; and he surveys the venerable structures of his favourite borough with as much fondness as Æneas discovered in beholding the towers of ancient Troy.

Mr. Hutton sets out with endeavouring to settle the etymology of Derby, concerning which his observations are judicious. He seems, however, to pay a greater regard to the authority of tradition than is consistent with his usual reserve in adopting received opinions. "A person of the name of Slater (says he) assured me, that his family resided at the foot of the bridge three hundred years ago, while the site of Derby was a park." He next takes notice of the situation, public roads, soil, air, water, and antiquity of Derby. All our historians, he observes, agree in supposing this borough to be a place of great antiquity, and he thinks there are many circumstantial evidences which tend to prove it a place of some magnitude in the time of the Britons. The remarks he adduces on this subject are as follows: that the situation of the place is inviting; that a passage over the Derwent was absolutely necessary in very early ages to connect the east and the western banks; that St. Mary's bridge, therefore, must have been that passage, because there are not the least vestiges of another in that part of the country, nor any roads with which another could connect them, that at Little Chester excepted, the history of which is well known. He likewise observes, that it was a point with the Romans, in forming their military ways, to direct them by the British towns, but never through them; and that this was the case at Derby. He considers the five churches, for reasons which he mentions, as another proof of its great antiquity. Its early magnitude is farther proved by Halfden's forces being quartered there during the winter of 874, which

* See Crit. Rev. vol. lxvi. p. 217.

justifies

justifies an inference that it must have been a town of some extent; and its being constituted the metropolis of the county, in the reign of Alfred, affords an additional argument in support of the same opinion.

We lay before our readers the following extract relative to the castle of Derby, as it strongly marks the author's zeal in prosecuting enquiries of this kind:

' If a reader should be so fond of antiquity as to merit the epithet of an old castle-hunter; if, like me, he has waded up to the neck in furze, to see the Ikenield-street; treasured up the jaw of a monk because the ground had preserved it a few centuries; dined at the King's-head, in Fenchurch-street, out of a shattered dish, in which queen Elizabeth breakfasted upon pork and peas, the morning she exchanged a prison for a throne; or hugged a broken chamber pot in which she ———; if he has dived into the bowels of the earth to bring up a Roman coin not worth three-half-pence; or preserved the fragments of an earthen vessel, out of which his great grand-father eat milk-porridge; he will not be displeased when I inform him, that he may find the vestiges of this castle in Mrs. Chambers's orchard, on the summit of the hill. One of the mounds eighty yards long, runs parallel with the houses upon Cock-pit hill, perhaps one hundred yards behind them; also parallel with those in St. Peter's parish, but twice the distance. This place of security then stood out of the town in an open field; no houses were near. It was guarded by the Derwent on one side, and on the other ran the London road. This, I apprehend, was the chief approach, because the passage afterwards bore the name of Castle street. From thence also, the fields towards the East, now Mr. Borrow's park, acquired the name of Castle-fields'.

The number of houses in Derby is said to be 1637, and the inhabitants 8563. The author afterwards speaks of the streets, and public buildings, among which are the assembly and theatre. He then gives a genealogical account of the family of Derby, with various particulars relative to the government of the borough; and we next meet with a list of the bailiffs and mayors, from the year 1513 to the present time; which is followed by a list of members for the borough.

In treating of the ecclesiastical history of Derby, our author informs us, that, from the solicitation of the inhabitants, Richard the First granted, by charter, to them and their heirs, the power of expelling every Jew who then resided in, or ever after should approach, Derby; but Mr. Hutton trusts, for the sake of humanity, that they have long ago burnt the charter. This subject leads the author into a digression, which we insert for the amusement of our readers.

The

‘ The man who has power, may oblige him who has none to act like him; but he cannot oblige him to think like him. Thought is free; action should follow thought. No man can be free, except his actions are his own: and while no injury arises from them, no power ought to controul them: hence appears the absurdity of punishing for religious conduct. Religion is allowed by all parties to be composed of meekness and love; but in all ages it has been supported by a spirit of blustering. That has ever been the truest which was the strongest. Power is the criterion of right. A powerful church is a powerful oppressor; and becomes a powerful state engine. No system can stand examination but that of perfect freedom; for, should the least infringement be allowed, the system falls. If a man’s faith and practice be ever so absurd, they are his own; they are private property; to which he has the same right as to the coat he wears, or the air he breathes; for should a second person deprive him of these, because they are infamous, a third, for the same reason may deprive the second; here then the fabric moulders, nor can it be erected upon another basis. The scriptures, as a rule of rectitude, never taught one man to take that which is the property of another. Errors in belief arise from the weakness of judgement: if we err in plain cases, it is no wonder we err in the mysterious. This weakness, being no fault, cannot merit punishment.—In a recent conversation with my friend Moses Solomon, if a Jew can be the friend of a Christian, he delivered, what some would deem an absurd belief, “ That the rabbies of their church had still the power of working miracles; a power which must be attended with other powers equally great. That Constantinople contained 600,000 Jewish families; Amsterdam nearly as many! That the generations of men dwindled in size every age: and in time would be reduced to pigmies. That in the days of David they were ten yards high; and that Absalom, being a fine young fellow, was considerably taller. In those of Moses they were twenty; but that Adam was so tall as to prevent the sun-beams from reaching the earth over his head. That Christ was an impostor, and had done irreparable mischief to that religion which he ought to have confirmed. That Dr. Priestly was culpable in attempting to convert the Israelites; and that he would never succeed:” which perhaps was the truest sentence he uttered. I assured him, that, however his sentiments differed from those of others, yet, as none were injured by them, none could claim a power over them; and, instead of being repelled, he ought to be supported.—Amazed, says the pious reader, would you allow such monstrous tenets? Yes,—Perhaps you would suffer the Heathen to worship the sun? Certainly; he worships the Saviour of the world; so do you.—And would you suffer the Mahometan absurdities to pass? I would: nay, I go farther;

farther; I would support that religion whose former practice I am going to condemn.

'In 1556, when the faggot was the barrier between truth and falsehood, a religious and harmless girl, of All Saints' parish, named Joan Waste, who was born blind, and assisted her father, a rope-maker, in his calling, was accused, by some officious neighbours before that ignorant doctor, Ralph Barns, bishop of Lichfield and Coventry, of denying the real presence in the sacrament. The bigot attempted to persuade her into his faith; upon which terms he offered to secure her salvation. But not being able to convert her to his religion, he was determined to put a stop to her own, therefore condemned her to the flames, and consigned her to the bailiffs of Derby for execution.'

A principal object at Derby is the famous silk mill, which our author says he has sincerely wished he had never seen. He certainly has experienced a severe application to industry at a very early age; and it seems not a little surprizing, that he should retain so warm an attachment to a place, which was the scene of such rigorous treatment.

The only natives of Derby eminent for their learning, and whose names have been preserved, are, Dr. Thomas Linager, commonly called Linacre, founder of the Royal College of Physicians in London; and Mr. John Flamsteed, astronomer-royal in the reigns of Queen Anne and king George the First.

In the present history Mr. Hutton sufficiently evinces the extent of his topographical researches. We have only to observe, that he enlivens a dry subject with a greater number of incidental reflections, and amusing remarks, than we remember to have met with in any other writer of this class; and that the work is ornamented with a variety of tolerably good plates.

Naval and Military Memoirs of Great Britain, from the Year 1727, to the present Time. In Six Volumes. By R. Beatson, Esq. First Three Volumes.

(Concluded from p. 444.)

MR. Beatson details the unfortunate affair of admiral Byng, 1756, at great length; and closes it with the following paragraph.

'We shall conclude this very disagreeable subject, by observing, that the lapse of more than thirty years has thrown much light on this tragedy; there being now the best reasons for presuming, that the court-martial did not clearly comprehend the meaning

of the act of parliament; that the misconduct of admiral Byng did not deserve so severe a punishment as death; and that, so far from considering him as a victim to public justice, he will be regarded by posterity as a martyr to the resentment of an administration, for whose conduct, their country has but too much reason to be ashamed; and, in whom, it would have been more honourable to have solicited his majesty for a pardon, than, by persevering in their misrepresentations, and artfully misleading the people, to throw the blame of the loss of Minorca on a person who did not deserve it; and, by that means, prevent the crown from exercising the noblest of its prerogatives.'

The glorious events of Mr. Pitt's administration open in 1757 with these sensible remarks.

'The state of the nation was at this time truly deplorable; without an ally that could be of the smallest service to us; engaged in an expensive, and hitherto an unsuccessful war; and at home torn in pieces by faction. This unfortunate change of administration, in a great measure suspended all our operations; and, having no ministry firmly settled, the plans that had been concerted were now no longer attended to. All parties were wholly engrossed with the struggle for power. Nor did our enemies remain idle spectators of our domestic contests; but took the opportunity of sending out powerful succours to all their colonies, particularly to North America; by which, they were not only enabled to baffle the plans we had laid for the reduction of their principal fortresses, but to attack some of ours with success. This grand political contest, was attended with the worst of consequences; it infused an uncommon degree of languor into all our naval and military operations: for, while our commanders abroad knew not who was to reward their services, or punish their neglects, and even were not assured in what light their best intended actions might be considered, they had reason to apprehend that they might not be represented to the nation as they really were, but as it might answer the particular purposes of some ruling faction; who to screen their own bad conduct, might give them up as a sacrifice, to appease the wrath of an enraged and injured public. In short, that enterprising boldness, which is the characteristic of the British nation, and which afterwards broke forth, and shone with such unparalleled lustre, seemed for a while to be hid under a cloud.

'At last, a coalition between the two contending parties was happily effected; and the following partition of places took place on the 29th of June, viz. Mr. Pitt and the earl of Holderness, secretaries of state; the duke of Newcastle, the honourable Henry Bilson Legge, (chancellor of the exchequer), Robert Nugent, esq;

William

William viscount Duncannon, and the honourable James Grenville, lords commissioners of the treasury; the honourable George Grenville, treasurer of the Navy; Richard earl Temple, lord privy seal; Henry Fox, esq; pay-master-general of the land forces; the honourable Charles Townshend, treasurer of the chamber; the duke of Devonshire, lord chamberlain of the household; Granville earl Gower, master of the horse; the duke of Bedford, lord lieutenant of Ireland; sir Robert Henley, lord keeper of the great seal; and George lord Anson, the honourable Edward Boscawen, Temple West, esq; George Hay, LL.D. Thomas Orby Hunter, Gilbert Elliot, esqs; and the honourable John Forbes, lords commissioners of the admiralty. In the month of September this year, died vice-admiral West. His death, by many, was supposed to have been accelerated by the hard fate of his colleague in the Mediterranean command, in 1756. In Mr. West, the nation was deprived of a man of the greatest probity, and the service of an excellent officer. Hans Stanley, esq; was appointed to his seat at the board of admiralty. From this arrangement in the state, we may with propriety date the beginning of Mr. Pitt's administration, which brought Great Britain to the highest pitch of glory and prosperity.'

In vol. II. p. 241, we find observations in which we entirely agree; and wish them to be generally known as a lesson to futurity.

'The French ministry were well acquainted with the cause that had hitherto enabled them to frustrate all our best laid plans; which was no other, than taking the greatest care to observe the most profound secrecy, as to the real destination of all their armaments; to use every means to draw their enemies attention from the object of their designs; and to be beforehand with them in all their naval and military expeditions. By steadily persevering in this conduct, they had disconcerted all our schemes in North America, and greatly facilitated their own. The success they had, by dispatching their squadron in the winter months, they found, from experience, gave them the best chance of eluding the vigilance of the British fleets; and they determined, in this respect, to repeat the same experiments this year as they had done the last.'

Let us also attend to this extract from vol. II. p. 274.

'Thus ended our expeditions to the coast of France; the most expensive, as well as a very uncertain method of making war. The success of the two first expeditions this summer, had raised great expectations in the minds of the public: this unexpected check, therefore, was extremely mortifying to them, and made
a great

a great impression on their minds. It is common with the vulgar, to rate military merit only by the success that accompanies it. Thus, the commander in chief, who was the hero of the nation while at Cherburg, had now fallen in their opinion, and his conduct subjected to very severe animadversions for his misfortune at St. Cas. This disaster greatly elevated the French, who filled all the foreign gazettes with the most exaggerated accounts of our defeat. Indeed they had cause so to do, in order to afford some consolation to their nation, whose trade was in a great measure ruined by the British navy, and whose coasts had for the whole summer been insulted with impunity. But in fact, this action at St. Cas could only be called at most the cutting off a rear-guard; and, considering the nature of a war of this sort, the British nation had great reason to congratulate themselves that their loss was so inconsiderable. The enemy's coasts were not destitute of troops, as was the case in autumn last year; for, besides the army under the Duc D'Aiguillon, in Brittany, a strong force had been assembled in the neighbourhood of Cherburg; and the French generals were severely censured, for allowing the British army to retire from that place unmolested. This little affair dispirited the British nation much more than it ought. Their expectations were too sanguine; and more blame was thrown on general Bligh than he deserved, whose chief fault on this occasion seems to have arisen from his being lulled into a fatal security, that the enemy were incapable of mustering a force sufficient to oppose his march, or interrupt his operations. Had general Bligh pursued his route to the heights of St. Cas by forced marches, and there erected some works, to cover the retreat of his army while re-embarking, in all probability the loss sustained would have been very trifling.

The glorious transactions of 1759 are opened with a spirited exordium, and detailed at great length, and in a very clear and distinct method. The character of M. de Montcalm, whom the French affect to compare to our immortal Wolfe, suffers not a little from the following just censure.

'The horrid barbarities committed by the French, and the Indians who sided with them, will for ever remain an indelible stain upon the character of M. de Montcalm, who not only countenanced those bloody and shameful outrages, but even encouraged them by rewards. A continuance of them, produced the following order from general Amherst: "No scouting party, or others in the army, are to scalp women or children belonging to the enemy: they are, if possible, to take them prisoners; but not to injure them on any account: the general being determined, should the enemy continue to murder women and children, who are subjects of the king of Great Britain, to revenge it by the death

death of two men of the enemy, for every woman and child murdered by them." That the enemy might not pretend ignorance of his resolutions on this head, he sent an officer with a flag of truce, to M. de Bourlemaque, the commanding officer at Ticonderago, with a copy of the above order.'

But he afterwards appears in a more amiable point of view.

' Nothing could exceed the surprize of the marquis de Montcalm, when he heard that general Wolfe and the British army had made good their landing above the town. He could not credit it, and said, " It is only M. Wolfe with a small party come to burn a few houses, look about him, and return." But when he was informed that the British army were drawn up in order of battle on the plains of Abraham; Then," said he, " they have at last got to the weak side of this miserable garrison: therefore we must endeavour to crush them by our numbers, and scalp them all before twelve o'clock. He died the day after the battle; and it is reported of him, that when his wounds were dressed, he requested of the surgeons who attended him, to tell him ingenuously whether or not his wounds were mortal. On being informed, they were; he said, " He was glad of it." He next asked how long he might survive: He was told, ten or twelve hours, perhaps less. " So much the better," replied he; " then I shall not live to see the surrender of Québec.'

We cannot resist our inclination to transcribe this paragraph.

' The victory gained over M. de Montcalm, and the surrender of Québec, were announced in one gazette extraordinary. Although joy and rapture flew from one end of the kingdom to the other; yet in the midst of this excessive exultation, a concern for the death of general Wolfe, was visible in every countenance; and while they rejoiced at the victories, they failed not in paying due praises to the memory of the accomplished hero, who had fallen in the attainment of them. Bonfires and illuminations were universal, one place excepted; and this was the village in which the mother of the deceased general lived. The inhabitants felt for her grief, which they would not increase; and put a violence on their inclinations, by not joining with their neighbours in giving public testimonies of joy and approbation on this occasion. To every one in the least acquainted with the dispositions of the people, they must know that the sacrifice they here made was very great.'

The succeeding observations cannot be circulated too widely.

' From a very gross defect or impropriety in the night-signals at present in use, and which are established by the authority of the admiralty, the very salutary measure adopted by sir Edward Hawke,
of

of bringing the fleet to an anchor at the time he did, might have been attended with the more fatal consequences, and might have proved the destruction of the victorious fleet of Britain. By these instructions, the signal to anchor by night is, two guns fired from the admiral's ship, without lights, or other means being used by which they can be distinguished from any other guns firing at the same time. It is very obvious, therefore, that towards the conclusion of a battle, only terminated by the want of light, there must be firing on all sides; and that consequently, two guns fired from the admiral's ship, could not, in such a situation, be distinguished as a signal. The obedience to such a confused order was such as might have been expected: only a few of the ships which were near the admiral, knew any thing of his having anchored: the others either stood out to sea, or anchored on different places of the coast, as they were urged to that measure by necessity. From this divided state of the British fleet, it is evident, that had the French ships kept in a collected body, which they ought to have done, by following the route of M. de Beaufremont within the Four Bank, they might have attacked the few ships which remained at anchor near admiral Hawke, in the morning of the 21st, with such superior force as must have given them a decisive and complete victory.

These facts suggest some very serious and important reflections on the subject of signals; as, in this instance, they appear to be of so much consequence, that by a defect in them alone, Britain might have been exposed to an invasion, and France left mistress of the sea, notwithstanding the efforts of a skilful and gallant commander, seconded by the exertions of the most active and intrepid seamen embarked in a superior fleet. It perhaps may be matter of surprize to some of the inhabitants of this island to be informed, that the same signals are still in force, and continue to direct the evolutions of the British fleet; and that they were formed during the last century. It may also appear strange, that among all the various improvements which have pervaded naval affairs since that time, no lord high-admiral, or board of admiralty, have ever bestowed sufficient time in considering of a proper change in this part of the sea-service. If it proceeds from want of sufficient power in the admiralty to make the alterations so much wanted, no time ought to be lost in applying to parliament to invest them with the necessary authority, so as to have the naval instructions thoroughly examined, and a new code drawn up containing the necessary alterations; which code should be inspected and approved of by a court of inquiry, consisting of the best informed naval officers. To some, this may appear trifling; but the first naval characters in the kingdom know it to be a matter of such moment to Britain, that on it the safety of her fleets, by night as well as day

day, and the proper management of them in time of battle or other danger, in a great measure depends.'

In the Appendix to this second volume, p. 56, we find a paper negligently inserted, which is given before in the text.

Proceeding to vol. III. we shall lay before our readers a few anecdotes concerning Thurot, as, from their locality, the author must have good information to authenticate them.

' M. Thurot's squadron was now diminished to three ships all of which had suffered severely in his last storm: provisions were likewise become so scarce on board, that the men were reduced to short allowance. In this situation, the captains of the Blonde and Terpsichore made the signal to speak with the commodore. Being come on board, they requested him to return to France, as, from sickness, and reduced numbers, they thought they could not fulfil the intention of the enterprize. This, M. Thurot positively refused; but, in order to refresh the men, he agreed to put into the island of Isla as soon as possible; which, on the 16th of February, they got sight of. The people on shore mistaking them for merchant ships who wanted pilots, Messrs M'Donald and M'Neil, in a small boat, went on board of the commodore. They were immediately conducted into the great cabin when they first discovered their mistake. M. Thurot treated them with great politeness, and assured them they had nothing to fear; for that all he wanted, was to be conducted into a safe harbour; and if the country people would furnish him with provisions, they should be paid for them in ready money. Mr. M'Neil was sent on shore to let the people know this, and prevent their being alarmed.

' In the evening, the ships were conducted into Claggencarrick bay, where they came to an anchor. Two French boats went, without orders, and plundered two sloops in the bay, one of them belonging to Mr. M'Donald. When M. Thurot was informed of this, he was extremely displeased; and as his people had carried off five tons of flour from the vessel, he insisted upon paying fifty guineas in lieu of it, although Mr. M'Donald assured him that it was more than the value. The Marshall Belleisle being very leaky, they brought the ship to a heel, and continued at work on her and the other two ships all the time they were here. The enemy bargained for a supply of black cattle, at the rate of fifty shillings a head; and M. Flobert gave a draught on the French resident at the Hague for the money. Very luckily for the merchants, they shewed the draught to M. Thurot, who assured them that it was not worth a farthing. He then went with them to M. Flobert, whom he upbraided for the meanness of his conduct, obliging him to pay them down fifty guineas in cash, and to give them a draught for the balance due to them on the king of France's banker at

Paris, which he assured them would be duly honoured, and which they afterwards found to be true. Other provisions which they procured, were paid for in ready money. While here, M. Thurot received the mortifying intelligence of M. de Conflant's defeat by sir Edward Hawke. At first, the French officers would not believe it; but they were soon undeceived; for Mr. M'Donald having the Scots Magazine in his pocket, in which was an account of the action from the London gazette. they were convinced of its truth, and appeared very much dejected.'

In speaking of the Manila ransom, which is sufficiently celebrated in the pages of Junius, the following wholesome advice is given:

'The conduct of the court of Spain, with regard to the non-payment of the Manila ransom-money, will afford a very useful lesson for naval and military people in their future behaviour, if ever any thing similar should occur. It will point out to them the necessity of taking proper methods to insure the fulfilling of all stipulations in the most ample manner, and to put it out of the power of any state, on ill grounded pretences, to defraud the conquerors of their just rights. The city of Manila was saved from being plundered by the British forces, in consideration of the inhabitants paying them four millions of dollars, one half of which was to be paid immediately, the other half at a time to be afterwards agreed upon. For this half, amounting to near 450,000l. sterling, the governor-general of the Phillipine islands drew bills on the royal treasury at Madrid.'

The conquest of Havanna, 1762, is closed in the following terms.

'The Spaniards struggled a long time to save their men of war; but this was a capital point and wholly inadmissible. They also made some attempts to have the harbour declared neutral during the war, (as may be seen from the capitulation), which, in fact, was declaring its consequence; but as this was no less essential to render the conquest complete, it was steadily refused. After two days altercation on these subjects, they gave up the points in question, and our troops were put in possession of the Havanna, after having lain before it for two months and eight days. With the city, was yielded a district of an hundred and eighty miles to the westward. This conquest was, without doubt, in itself the most considerable, and in its consequences the most decisive, of any we had made since the beginning of the war; and in no operation, were the courage, steadiness, and perseverance of the British troops, and the conduct of their leaders, more conspicuous. The acquisition of this place, united in itself all the advantages which

which can be acquired in war. It was a military achievement of the highest class: by its effect on the enemy's marine, it was equal to the greatest naval victory; and in the plunder, it equalled the produce of a national subsidy. Nine sail of the enemy's line-of-battle ships were taken. Three of their capital ships, as already mentioned, had been sunk by themselves at the beginning of the siege: two more were in forwardness upon the stocks, and were afterwards destroyed by the captors. The enemy on this occasion, lost a whole fleet of ships of war, besides a number of considerable merchant ships. And, in ready money, in tobacco collected at the Havanna on account of the king of Spain, and in other valuable merchandizes, the sum lost by the enemy, perhaps, did not fall short of three millions sterling.

Mr. Beatson's remarks on the error committed in attacking the Moro Castle, before the town, may perhaps attract the notice of military men in particular.

‘Had the city been the first object, instead of the second, our loss had not been near so great as it was. The city was of great extent, the wall was out of repair, its fortifications consisted of twenty-one bastions, no outworks except two ravelins, the ditch dry, and not of any great breadth, and the covered-way ruinous. The Punta fort was calculated more to secure the entrance of the harbour, than to add strength to the town. The Moro was a strong fort of a triangular form, having two bastions towards the land, and two irregular ones towards the sea, where it joined by a wall some strong batteries of heavy cannon, which defended the entrance, and overlooked the town and Punta. The fleet, from the situation of the place, could not assist with any effect in battering the walls of it; and to have endeavoured to force an entrance into the harbour, would have been madness in the extreme: yet the Spaniards seem to have had a great dread of this, by their sinking several very large ships in the entrance to prevent it. This was almost the only thing censurable in the noble defence they made, as the broadsides of twelve ships of the line gave them ample security on this head.’

We are glad, amid the tumults of war, to hear the still small voice of humanity; and believe that our readers will share our pleasure in transcribing these paragraphs.

‘On the 10th of January, the *Zenobie*, a frigate belonging to the king of France, of twenty-two guns, and two hundred and ten men, sailed from Havre-de Grace, on a cruize. On the 12th, they were overtaken by a violent storm, and, after using every effort, were obliged to run the ship ashore on the peninsula of Portland; where, with much difficulty, seventy-one of the crew were saved, who got on shore with very few clothes. The bar-

barous inhabitants, however, came down and stripped the poor unfortunate creatures of what little the sea had left them. They must have perished, had not Mr. Taver, the governor of Portland, interposed his authority, and exerted his benevolence. When somewhat recovered from their bruises and fatigues, he sent them to Weymouth; from whence the officers wrote to the lords of the admiralty, petitioning their lordships, that, in commiseration of their distresses, they would not add captivity to their misfortunes. The secretary of the admiralty immediately answered their letter, in which he informed them, that the lords of the admiralty had laid their letter before his majesty, who was graciously pleased to order, in compassion of their deplorable circumstances, that they were not to be regarded as prisoners, but that they should all of them be immediately clothed, and maintained at his expence, until embarked for France.

‘ This humanity and generosity was attended with the following good effect. On the night of the 25th of January, in a violent storm, a British vessel was drove ashore near to Havre-de-Grace, and broke to pieces, but the crew were saved. The commandant of the place being informed of this, immediately ordered them good comfortable quarters, and allowed the common men at the rate of thirty sous a day, until they were embarked for England.’

The interesting nature of this work has forced us to exceed our intended limits; but we hope that our extracts will prove neither unentertaining nor uninstruative. The style, as the reader must have observed, is plain and distinct, without pretensions to elegance or decorations; but well adapted to the plan of the work, which assumes not the higher style of history.

Upon the whole, it is a work of utility and merit; and we shall be glad to see the remaining three volumes.

Sketches chiefly relating to the History, Religion, Learning, and Manners, of the Hindoos. With a concise Account of the Present State of the Native Powers of Hindostan.

(Concluded from Vol. I. p. 454.)

AN implicit confidence in the clergy, we perceive, is not confined to European countries.

‘ Those who dedicate themselves to the service of Lingam, swear to observe inviolable chastity. They do not, like the priests of Atys, deprive themselves of the means of breaking their vows; but were it discovered, that they had in any way departed from them, the punishment is death. They go naked; but being
considered

considered as sanctified persons, the women approach them without scruple, nor is it thought that their modesty should be offended by it. Husbands, whose wives are barren, solicit him to come to their houses, or send their wives to worship Lingam at the temples; and it is supposed, that the ceremonies on this occasion, if performed with proper zeal, are generally productive of the desired effect.'

Their public worship is thus described.

At the hours of public worship the people resort to the temples. They begin by performing the ablutions at the tank, which is either to be found in front of the building, or in the great temples in the centre of the first court. Leaving their slippers, or sandals, on the border of the tanks, they are admitted to a peristyle or vestibule, opposite to the building which contains the idols: where they observe great reverence and devotion; and whilst the brahmans perform the ceremonies of the Jug or Pooja, the dancing women occasionally dance in the court, singing the praises of the divinity to the sounds of various musical instruments.

The Pooja may likewise be performed at home before the household images. Those who are to assist at it begin by washing themselves. They likewise wash the room or place destined for the ceremony; and then spread it with a new mat, or with a carpet that is only used for that purpose. On this they place the Sing Asin, or throne, which is generally made of wood richly carved and gilt, though sometimes of gold and silver. The idol being put on the Sing Asin, the things necessary for the Pooja are laid upon the mat; consisting of a bell of metal; a conch shell to blow on; a censer filled with ral, bezoin, sugar, and other articles; which is kept constantly burning, pieces of bezoin and ral being now and then thrown into it. Flowers separately and in garlands are scattered upon the mat. The idol is put into a metal basin, and being washed by pouring the water first on the head, is wiped and replaced on the Sing Asin. Cups or plates of gold, silver, or other metals, are spread before it, some filled with rice, others with different sorts of fruits, with dry sweetmeats and with cow's milk. The worshippers, repeat certain prayers and ashlocks, or verses in praise of the god whom the idol represents.

The brahman, who performs the ceremony, occasionally rings the bell and blows the shell. He gives the Tiluk, or mark on the forehead, to the idol, by dipping his right thumb in the dust of sandal wood, or other substance that has been prepared for that purpose, beginning at the top of the nose, and advancing upwards. But the colour, the size, and shape of the Tiluk depend on the

tribe the worshippers may be of ; some tribes being marked with vermillion, others with turmeric, and some with a kind of white earth like chalk. A brahman generally marks all the persons present in the same manner. The fruit and other articles of food that were spread before the idol, are divided amongst them ; and the idol is then carefully wrapped up, and with the Sing Asin and the rest of the things used in the ceremony, kept in a secure place until another Pooja be performed.

‘ A veneration for fire seems to have been common to all the ancient eastern nations, and it is evident, that the Hindoos, if they do not worship it, hold it in a sort of religious respect. Every day at sun-rise the priests go to some river, or to the tanks of their temples, to perform the sandivaney or worship to brahma the supreme. After having washed themselves, taking water in the right hand, they throw it in the air before and behind them, invoking the deity, and singing forth thanksgiving and praise. They then throw some towards the sun, expressing their gratitude for his having again appeared to dispel the darkness of the night.

‘ Mr. Wilkins informs us, that they are enjoined to light up a fire at certain times, which must be produced by the friction of two pieces of wood of a particular kind ; that with a fire thus procured all their sacrifices are burnt ; the nuptial altar flames ; and the funeral pile is kindled.

‘ In the Heetopades it is said : “ Fire is the superior of the brahmans ; the brahman is the superior of the tribes ; the husband is the superior of women ; but the stranger is the superior of all.”

The learning of the Brahmans is much greater than an European would readily conceive.

‘ Monsieur le Gentil observes, that the brahmans in general make their calculations with a great degree of quickness. He gives an account of a visit he received soon after his arrival at Pondicherry, from a Hindoo, named Nana Moodoo, who had found means, through the secret protection of persons in power, to learn from a brahman some of the principles of astronomy. Monsieur le Gentil, to try the extent of his knowledge in it, gave him some examples of eclipses to calculate, and amongst others, one of a total eclipse of the moon, of the 23d December 1768. Seating himself on the floor, he began his work with a parcel of small shells, named Cowries, which he employed to reckon with ; and looking occasionally at a book of palm leaves, that contained his rules, he gave the result of his calculation, with all the different places of the eclipse, in less than three quarters of an hour, which, on confronting it with an ephemeris, Monsieur le Gentil found

found sufficiently exact to excite his astonishment at the time and manner in which the calculation had been performed. Yet the education of Nana Moodoo, by his own account, must have been very confined; and Monsieur le Gentil takes notice, that he seemed entirely unacquainted with the meaning of many terms, being unable to explain them.'

In the Sketch of Hindoo manners and customs we find this curious particular.

'The Hindoos are so scrupulous with respect to the virginity of their brides, that they marry extremely young, although the consummation is deferred till the parties arrive at the age of puberty; nor will they marry a person with whom those symptoms have already appeared to which the sex is subject.'

An accurate and interesting description is given of their marriage ceremonies,

'When the bride appears to have arrived at the age of puberty, various ceremonies are again used. The parents receive compliments of congratulation, and the marriage is consummated.

'When she becomes pregnant; when she passes the seventh month without accident; and when she is delivered of her child; there are at each of those epochs, ceremonies to be performed, and thanksgivings made to the gods.'

The practice of widows burning themselves is still tolerated; and the fortitude of these voluntary victims is astonishing. We shall transcribe only the conclusion of one narration.

'By two steps the devoted woman ascended the pile, and entered the arbor; on her entrance she made a profound reverence at the feet of the deceased, and advanced and seated herself by his head; she looked, in silent meditation, on his face, for the space of a minute, then set fire to the arbor in three places; observing that she had set fire to leeward, and that the flames blew from her, she rose and set fire to windward and resumed her station. Ensign Daniel with his cane separated the grass and leaves on the windward side, by which means we had a distinct view of her as she sat. With what a dignity and undaunted countenance she sat fire to the pile the last time, and assumed her seat, can only be conceived, for words cannot convey a just idea of her. The pile being of combustible matters, the supporters of the roof were presently consumed, and it tumbled upon her.'

The native gentleness of the Hindoos makes us shudder at the barbarities committed amongst them by nations who called themselves civilised.

‘ An abhorrence to the shedding of blood,—the offspring of nature, nursed by habit, and sanctified by religion,—the influence of the most regular of climates, which lessens the wants of life, and renders men averse to labour, perhaps also the moderate use of animal food, and abstinence from spirituous liquors, contribute to render the Hindoos the mildest, and probably the most enervated, inhabitants of the globe. That they should possess patience and resignation under calamity, is perhaps not much to be wondered at, as the same causes that tend to damp exertion may produce these qualities; but besides these, we have numberless instances of firmness and active courage that occasions a considerable degree of surprize. The gentle and generally timid Hindoo, while under the influence of religion, or his ideas of duty and honour, will not only meet death with indifference, but embrace it by choice.

‘ An Englishman, whilst on a hunting party, hastily struck a Peon, for improperly letting loose a greyhound. The Peon happened to be a rajah-pout, which is the highest tribe of Hindoo soldiers. On receiving the blow, he started back with an appearance of horror and amazement, and drew his poignard. But again composing himself, and looking steadfastly at his master, he said, “I am your servant, I have long eat your bread;”—and having pronounced this, he plunged the dagger into his own bosom. In those few words he surely pathetically expressed, “The arm that has been nourished by you, shall not be employed to take away your life; but in sparing yours, I must give up my own, as I cannot survive my dishonour.”

A *peon* is explained to mean a foot-soldier: the very term and destination of pawns in the game of chess, in French *peons*.

We have been so copious in our extracts from this entertaining performance that we have not room for many others which we had designed for the perusal of our readers, particularly a specimen of Hindoo poetry, addressed to the God of Love. It must, therefore, suffice to add, that this is a rich and judicious compendium of the ancient and modern state of Hindostan*.

Proceedings relating to the Peerage of Scotland from January 16, 1707, to April 29, 1788. By William Robertson, Esq. 4to. 1l. 7s. Boards. Robinson, 1790.

THIS work, chiefly interesting to the peers of Scotland, must from its nature be confined to a very narrow circle of readers. The author has shewn considerable industry and

* The hymn to *Narayna*, mentioned in our last Number, the reader will find in Crit. Rev. vol. LXIII. p. 267.

accuracy; and as his work has no pretensions, except to the humble, and too much neglected, praise of mere utility, we should wish to recommend it to such of our readers as are fond of original documents, or desire to form an idea of the state of aristocratic politics in the sister kingdom, during the present century.

The preface begins in these terms.

‘ The following pages contain a circumstantial detail of the proceedings of the peers of Scotland at the various elections of their representatives to the house of lords of the parliament of Great Britain: they contain, likewise, every material entry in the journals of the house of lords, relating, either to those elections, or to the peers of Scotland in general, or to particular peerages of Scotland.

‘ The utmost industry and care of which the Editor is capable have been exerted to render this publication accurate and complete.

‘ The labour of an attentive perusal of fourteen folio volumes of the printed journals of the house of lords, and of making copious excerpts from those journals, was but trifling, compared with that of collecting, inspecting, and arranging the multitude of original writings in the general register-house relative to the different elections of the peers.

‘ Seventeen of those elections took place prior to the year 1736. Of only two of those seventeen are their minutes now remaining. A careful investigation, therefore, of the writings or warrants (in the law-language of Scotland) of the remaining fifteen elections, became indispensable, in order to enable the editor to form an intelligible statement of the various steps of procedure at each election.

‘ But in what a condition did those writings present themselves! papers and parchments, in a state of inexpressible confusion, promiscuously crammed together in more than a dozen leathern bags; and those bags buried in dust and dirt in an obscure corner of the gloomy apartments in which the records were formerly deposited, where they had been accumulating for nearly thirty years, before the necessity of a methodical arrangement was felt; and when that necessity was at length perceived, the darkness and confined situation of the place rendered a proper arrangement in a great measure impracticable.

‘ The zeal, however, of the editor, intent on a work, which he considered to be singularly important to the first rank of citizens in his native country, was not abated at this disgusting prospect. He persisted; and he has accomplished his undertaking.’

The plan of this work will not admit of many extracts; but a few shall be laid before our readers, in order to enable

them to form some judgement of its execution. And we shall begin with the form of procedure at the elections of peers representative of Scotland.

‘ At twelve o’clock of the day fixed by the proclamation, the two principal clerks of session, named by the lord clerk-register to act on the occasion, repair to the place of election, attended by their depute-clerks, and other necessary officers.

‘ The lord clerk-register’s deputies for keeping the records accompany the clerks, carrying along with them the proclamation, with an attestation of its having been published in Edinburgh; the lord clerk-register’s commission to the clerks; the great roll of peers; prepared copies of the oaths to be sworn and subscribed by the peers; such proxies and lists, with the relative oaths and certificates of qualification, as have been by absent peers addressed to the lord clerk-register; two copies of a return, written on parchment with blanks, in which the names of the peers elected may be inserted; and many other books or writings to which it is likely that reference may be made in the course of the election.

‘ Two of his majesty’s chaplains attend at the same time; and all the officers just mentioned take their places together at a table placed across to, and adjoining the end of the long table at which the peers are to sit; the two principal clerks of session sitting in the centre.

‘ The peers sit down at the long table as they arrive, without any attention to precedence, or any other ceremony whatever.

‘ When the attendance of any lawyers, or other men of business, is desired by any peer, such men of business take their stations behind the peers who wish for their assistance, and communicate their thoughts privately; without attempting to address themselves aloud to the meeting in general.

‘ When all the peers whose personal appearance is expected, are assembled, one of the chaplains begins the business with a prayer.

‘ This ended, one of the principal clerks reads the proclamation with the attestation of its having been published at Edinburgh; and produces the commission by the lord clerk-register to his colleague and him, which is seldom read.

‘ The principal clerks proceed to call the great roll of the peerage of Scotland; in the course of which the peers who are present answer to their titles; and when such peers, as have granted proxies, or sent lists, are called, the word “Proxy,” or “List,” as the case happens to be, is pronounced by one of the lord register’s deputies for keeping the records.

‘ In the mean time, the depute-clerks write down the titles of the peers, which are answered to in the course of calling the roll, distinguishing them into “present”—“by proxy”—“lists.”

‘ Then

‘ Then the oaths are, by the principal clerks, administered to the peers present in this order, viz. the oath of allegiance; the oath against the pope’s supremacy; the declaration against popery; the oath of abjuration being written on parchment, and all the rest on paper.

‘ When all the peers present have subscribed the oaths, the principal clerks begin to collect the votes, by calling over,

‘ 1st, The names of the peers present, according to the precedence in the great roll; and each peer, when his title is called, delivers in a written note signed by him, containing the titles of the peer or peers for whom he gives his suffrage.

‘ 2dly, Those peers who have granted proxies being next called in the same manner, the peers present who hold the proxies, deliver in similar written notes signed by them, naming the peers for whom they, in the character of proxies, give their votes.

‘ 3dly, and lastly, The lists are produced in the same order.

‘ In the course of the first calling of the great roll, all protests relating to precedence must be made.

‘ In the calling in order to collect the votes, protests, against particular votes, founded either on defect of right to the title of honour, or on informalities in the proxies, or lists, or the certificates of the qualifications of absent peers, must be made.

‘ The clerks then class the votes and make a scrutiny. Having adjusted the scrutiny to their private satisfaction, they read aloud to the meeting the titles of the peer or peers who have the majority of votes.

‘ If any peer present conceive the principal clerks to have acted erroneously or illegally, this is the proper time for such peer to state his charge in the form of a protest.

‘ The titles of the peers or peer elected, are then inserted in the blanks in the two prepared copies of the return; and the two principal clerks, in presence of the peers assembled, subscribe and seal both copies; of which one is transmitted to the clerk of the crown at London, and the other is deposited, along with the rest of the documents of the election, in the general register-house.

‘ While the various steps of procedure are going on, the deputy-clerks of session take down accurate notes of every circumstance as it occurs.

‘ Finally, the business of the meeting is terminated, as it began, with a prayer by one of the chaplains.

The motion in the house of lords, 1734, that the peers of Scotland should be elected by ballot, deserves notice.

‘ Then it was moved, “ To resolve, for the better securing the freedom of the election of a peer, or peers, to sit in the parliament of

of Great Britain on the part of Scotland, That the election shall be by way of ballot."

" And a question being stated thereupon:

" After further debate, the question was put upon the said motion;

" And it was resolved in the negative."

‘ Dissident.

‘ 1st, Because, this motion tending only to make a variation in the manner of electing the peers for Scotland, we apprehend it was entirely agreeable to the intention of the 22d article of the union; for whatever can contribute to make the election more free and independent, the more it answers the design of that article. And we must observe, that this house has been so far from thinking the manner of election unalterable, that a bill passed this house, by which the election itself was entirely abolished.

‘ 2dly, Because in an election of this nature, the method of voting by ballot appears to us infinitely preferable on many accounts; for, as it is well known there are several alliances among that body of nobility, many of the peers may be put under great difficulties; their alliances drawing them one way, and their opinion and inclination another way: it is also possible, that by pensions from the crown, or by civil or military preferments, some of them may lie under obligations to a court, and be reduced to the hard necessity (under the power of an arbitrary minister) either of losing their employments, or of voting against the nearest relations, and their own opinions also: we apprehend, that no election can be called perfectly free, where any number of the electors are under any influence whatsoever, by which they may be biassed in the freedom of their choice.

‘ 3dly, Because we apprehend that this house is, in a most essential manner, concerned in the freedom of this election; for if sixteen new members are to be brought in every new parliament, under any undue influence, it may tend to subvert the independence of this house, and of consequence the constitution of the whole kingdom. By means of such an election, an ambitious minister may make use of the power of the crown, at one time to destroy the interest of the crown, at another to oppress the liberty of his fellow-subjects; and, by different turns, protect himself from the just resentment of both.

‘ 4thly, As this house is the highest court of judicature, and the last resort in all matters relating to the properties of the subjects of Great Britain and Ireland; we conceive, that every person who is master of any property is concerned in the consequence of this motion: for if sixteen of these members, in whose hands this great trust is vested, should ever be thought to be in the nomination

mination of a minister, the subjects of these kingdoms may have great reason to dread the consequence of such an unwarrantable influence, by which their liberties, lives, and properties, might be rendered precarious.

'Boyle. Coventry, Ker. Bedford. Strafford. Bruce. Carteret. Winchelsea and Nottingham. Cardigan, Weymouth. Bolton. Berkshire. Willoughby de Broke. Cobham. Oxford and Mortimer. Haverham Chesterfield. Marchmont. Clinton. Montrose. Bathurst. Bristol. Aylesford. Warrington. Foley. Montjoy. Marlborough. Stair. Tadcaster. Tweedale. Denbigh. Litchfield. Northampton. Gower.'

The lord Elphinstone's protest in the same year, (p. 156), that the ministry had attempted undue influence upon himself, is curious: as is the earl of Roseberry's declaration subsequent, that the same was his case.

Upon the whole we have to thank Mr. Robertson for much authentic information, arranged in a very clear and accurate method.

Historical and Biographical Sketches of the Progress of Botany in England, from its Origin to the Introduction of the Linnæan System. By Richard Pulteney, M. D. F. R. S.

(Concluded from Vol. I. p. 156.)

THE numerous species of the vegetable kingdom first required a particular attention to arrangement, an attention early bestowed, but unequally and imperfectly kept in view. Scientific botany began to dawn under the auspices of Ray, and was brought to its present improved state by Linnæus and his disciples. Those whom the Linnæan system had disgusted, or who, led by the fascinating eloquence of Buffon, in whose peculiar department the advantages of arrangement were less conspicuous, heard with impatience the term science disgraced by the botanical nomenclature, as they affected to call it, of the northern school. As a science, however, it flourished in the Upsal gardens, and the most vigorous scions have been propagated from thence to the neighbouring kingdoms. It has been the common error of authors and declaimers to confound the science of plants, with those of their uses; and when they see only names, accompanied with distinctions, they forget, or have never known, that this must necessarily be the first step, and that it is the great foundation of real knowledge, for an accurate discrimination of the species of plants

plants is absolutely necessary to direct the choice, and to ascertain the effects. Those who read the old writers, in whose writings botany was subservient to the more useful arts, particularly to the materia medica, will be constantly disgusted, with the vague uncertain accounts of the different vegetables, for their directions are a little more exact, than if it were said that the lilly roots were useful to discuss inflammations and poppy heads to relieve pain; but, if in pursuance of this advice, some of the lilly of the valley roots were applied to an inflamed eye, or the papaver corniculatum given to procure sleep, the prescription would be found dangerous. In short, the most obvious arrangement, that of a genus was only attended to, and where the species did not agree in their properties, great inconveniences must result. The moderns at first attended only to those first associations, genera; but, though some of these were obvious and natural, others they found to be very different. Plants were thrown together with little natural affinity, and the affinity of others was not clearly perceived. Difficulties of this kind were the source of method and science: in conquering these, rather than in forming systems, the hand of a master is conspicuous.

It is not, however, sufficient to associate species, into the first and lowest natural order, a genus, but that genus must be distinguished by peculiar characters: it must not be so numerous as to make the distinguishing marks vague, or the definition long; or so concise, except in the natural classes, where the distinction rests on minute constant parts, as to discriminate the genus imperfectly. Under each genus, the species must be naturally arranged, and properly discriminated, and the species have been lately distinguished by a peculiar name, often descriptive, to prevent the repetition of the specific character, which was before necessary. In these important respects, Ray and Morison had done much; but Linnæus greatly added to their labours, incurring the imputation of occasionally separating genera apparently natural, too rashly; or combining some distinct species too arbitrarily and artificially; on the whole, he formed a system, which, unlike those of theoretic visionaries, is probably more accurately finished in its minutest parts, than its general outline; and those will most justly appreciate, and most ardently admire, who have examined it with vegetables before them. He has, in this way, erected botany into a science, and given that minute precision to the characters of such numerous species, that almost every plant, already known, may be soon ascertained; and new ones, often with ease, be placed in their proper situation. It would be too much to say, that the system of

Linnæus

Linnaeus is co-extensive with nature: we may at least observe, that its foundation is securely fixed, since this system alone is extended so far, as nature has yet been investigated.

It is for these reasons, if our author's Sketches had assumed a more regular form, that we should have wished that the new epoch had began with Ray; but, though the method of the English botanist is natural, well conducted, and, on the whole, a very eligible one, yet there are numerous reasons for preferring that of the Swede. In the chapter, which follows that we considered in our last article, Dr. Pulteney speaks of method in general, and gives the history of the various arrangements from Theophrastus to Conrad Gesner, the first author who adopted correct ideas of classification. In this part, he expresses his opinion of the preference of the more arbitrary arrangements, where the distinctions of the classes and orders are simple, and founded on the difference of the same parts of the flower. We remember Dr. Hope, who vainly laboured in the visionary task of forming a natural system, expressing the warmest surprize, and no little indignation, at the suggestion of the general preference of an artificial one; yet, after some enquiry, and some arguments, he was brought to own, that at least it was more generally convenient, and often more easily employed.

From Gesner we proceed down to Linnaeus, through the various attempts of different authors; and this leads our author to a short account of the sexual system, which is now perhaps established beyond dispute. This opinion, Dr. Pulteney thinks, originated from Dr. Grew, and his mention of sir Thomas Millington seems to show, that when the latter first suggested the idea to Grew, it had already been the subject of his own reflections. The last objector we have probably attended to, viz. Spalanzani, and it is with pleasure, and some share of pride, that we observe and mention Dr. Pulteney's coinciding with us in the most important parts of this subject, particularly in considering the motions of vegetables, as arbitrary, the necessary result of particular causes, or, in more common language, mechanical. After mentioning Willisel, the laborious and ingenious attendant on Ray, in some of his progresses, Dr. Plott, the first author of Provincial and Natural Histories, and his successors in that department, the volume concludes with some anecdotes of sir George Wheeler, who, in his travels through Greece, collected some new and curious plants, and introduced them into this country.

As we approach towards our own times, our author's Sketches become more interesting and pleasing; yet, as he examines authors and works better known, we shall follow

follow him at a distance. This part of the history can only be read with advantage in the volume itself. The fame and the labours of Ray made botany a fashionable study, and his time, with a few succeeding years, has been styled the golden age of this science in England. The names of Plukenet, Petiver, Sloane, Lawson, Blair and the two Sherards, with various others, are sufficiently known; and these, with Ray, we could have wished had been placed in one group, for, with abilities scarcely less extensive than those of Ray, they contributed to adorn and to perfect his system. This series we need not, for the reasons given, particularly follow; but, from the pleasing parterre, we may select a few flowers.

Plumier, a French botanist, first gave the names of persons to plants; and in this was followed by Petiver and Plukenet, who contributed to perpetuate by the same means, the names of some who little merited the distinction: we shall select our author's elegant account of the rise and progress of this custom.

‘ Poetry has consecrated, in this way, the names of Adonis, Daphne, Hyacinthus, Narcissus, and others. Pliny informs us, that Eupatorium is said to be the cognomen of Mithridates, who first discovered the uses of that plant. Gentiana, we are told, is derived from Gentius, king of Illyria: Lyfimachia, from Lyfimachus, king of Sicily: Telephium, from Telephus, king of Myfia: Teucrium, from Teucer, king of Troy: Clymenum, from Clymenus: Artemisia, from the wife of king Mausolus: Helenium, from Helena, the wife of Menelaus: Euphorbium, from Euphorbus, physician to Juba II. king of Mauritania; though Salmasius avers, that this name had been in use at a much earlier period. Many other instances might be adduced.

‘ In succeeding ages, the devotion of the monks led them to consecrate a variety of plants to the saints of the kalendar. Thus we have the Herba Sancti Antonii, Epilobium: S. Christophori, Aetæa: S. Gerardi, Ægopodium: S. Ruperti, Geranium: S. Jacobi, Senecio: S. Petri, Parietaria, &c. &c. John Bauhine wrote a treatise, in 1591, now become very scarce. “De Plantis à Divis Sanctisve Nomen habentibus.”

‘ The restorers of botany, in a few instances, revived the practice. Gesner, had he lived to finish his plan in his “History of Plants,” intended to have perpetuated the names of his friends, by monuments of this kind. It appears, that he had requested Guilandinus, John Bauhine, Kentman, Camerarius, and our celebrated countryman Dr. Caius, to select from his new species, such as they chose to bear their names, or allow to him the privilege of adopting what he thought most congruous. By the same kind

kind of tribute we learn, from his letters, that he proposed to record the names of his friends, Gasserus, Occo, Heretius, and several others.

• Marthiolus, however, actually restored the usage, by the application of the term *Cortusa* to a new plant, in honour of *Cor-tusus*, the successor of *Guilandinus*, in the garden of Padua; and *Clusius* followed his example, by calling the contrayerva of the shops *Drakæna*, in honour of sir Francis Drake; from which time it was sparingly practised, until after the invention of system; and the construction of generical characters, at the latter end of the last century. *Tournefort*, *Plumier*, and *Petiver*, led the way, and have been followed by all succeeding writers of note, and by none more than by *Linnæus* himself. It may be stiled the apotheosis of botanists; and *Linnæus* may be compared to the high priest, who has thus immortalized a numerous group of celebrated men.

The objection we formerly offered to the design of distinguishing different minerals by personal names, has been made to this plan, that it conveys no idea of the form, habit, or properties of the body; but, with less precision, for such appropriated names can be only useful, when applied to individuals, and perhaps the scheme is carried too far, when continued in the trivial names; but, as Dr. Pulteney well observes, the most euphonious Greek name does not convey a more appropriated character of the genus than those personal appellations.

Dr. Sloane's character is described advantageously; and though one or two detracting expressions occur in the subsequent part of the volume, we ought not to accuse our author of inconsistency. He is, in his general account, relating the progress of science, and the assistance it received from the travels of this naturalist, and this aid was not inconsiderable; though his unconnected descriptions may deserve a little censure, when compared with the scientific regularity of the *Linnæan* school. We have perhaps acted impertinently in defending Dr. Pulteney against an imaginary accuser; but as we at first thought it inconsistent, the apology, which occurred to our mind, might contribute to defend him against some other critic. We shall, however, transcribe the historian's account of the prodromus to the great work of sir Hans Sloane—his 'Catalogues.'

• This volume, intrinsically valuable as it is, may yet be considered as only the nomenclature, or systematic index to his subsequent work. The arrangement of the subject (and which was strictly followed in "The History,") is nearly that of Mr. Ray; vegetables being thrown into twenty-five large natural classes, or

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families. Among botanists of that time, generical characters had not attained any remarkable precision; and Sloane, like Plukenet, was little farther anxious, than to refer his new plants to some genus already established, without a minute attention to the parts of fructification, farther than as they formed part of the character drawn from habit: yet with this defect, the figures and descriptions of Sloane proved sufficiently accurate to enable his successors to refer almost all his species, to the appropriate places in the system of the present day.

‘ By this neglect of constructing genera, Sloane nevertheless threw into the hands of Plumier the grateful opportunity which he embraced, of naming the plants of his investigations after celebrated botanists. In justice, however, to Plumier, it has been before observed, that he was not parsimonious in the distribution of these favours, to the merit of Englishmen.

‘ It is worthy of observation, that among these classes, there are only two plants belonging to the umbelliferous tribe, and but one genus of the asperifoliæ, namely the heliotropium. The ferns, on the other hand, are very numerous all over the West India islands. Sloane has above one hundred species; and Plumier, a few years afterwards, detected many more.

‘ In this volume, however small in bulk, yet vast in labour, there is a circumstance much to the credit of Sloane, which must be obvious to every intelligent naturalist. It is the care which the author has taken to consult every possible resource, in order to discriminate his plants, and avoid an unnecessary multiplication of species, by describing that as new, which was before known. So numerous a set of synonyms had never been inserted in any local catalogue; and Sloane greatly enhanced its value, by a most commendable addition; having, with incredible labour, referred to every traveller of note for all the vegetables renowned for utility in medicine, arts, or œconomy.’

The friends, the companions, the fellow-labourers and assistants of Ray, were lost on the deaths of the Sherards, and this age of able, learned, and scientific botanists was at an end. The most important act of Dr. Sherard was the introduction of Dillenius into this country from Germany. He bequeathed an annual stipend to the botanical chair at Oxford, on condition that Dillenius should be the first professor.

This forms another epoch in the History of English Botany, *the improved age of Ray*, and it is marked by the appointment of the German naturalist at Oxford, and the preferment of Dr. Martin to the professorship of botany at Cambridge. Before this period, about 1727, the science had languished in either university

university, and it rose under the auspices of these naturalists to a considerable height. Dillenius' works are in the hands of every botanist, and their merits are in general ascertained with precision. With the cryptogamia he was particularly conversant; and his work is still the standard of accurate information, though not of scientific arrangement in this line. Of his knowledge of plants, we have a sufficient testimony in the words of Linnæus, who observes, that Dillenius was the only naturalist in England, who attended to, and understood, genera. Of his more private life little is known; but that little we may transcribe.

‘ I have never been able to acquire that information my curiosity hath prompted me to wish for, relating to the domestic character, habits, temper, and dispositions of Dr. Dillenius. Of those whom I have conversed with, who were his contemporaries, I have learned that he was modest, temperate, and gentle in all his conduct: that he was known to few who did not seek him; and, as might be expected, from the bent of his studies, and the close application he gave to them, that his habits were of the recluse kind. If it be allowable to form any opinions of men from the perusal of their letters, some that I have seen, written by him, would suggest, that he was naturally endowed with a placid disposition, improved by a philosophical calmness of mind, which secured him in a considerable degree from the effects of the incidental evils of life.’

Of his cotemporary Dr. Martin, we meet with little information that is new. Our historian bears a cheerful and unreserved testimony of his various merits, and it is but justice to acknowledge, that his *Decads* and his edition of Virgil's *Georgics* and *Bucolics* contribute to support his fame, and raise it to no inconsiderable height. The merit of these works is not, we think, sufficiently understood, and it were to be wished, his time and his talents had not been so much confined to abridgments and compilations.

The principal cotemporaries of these founders of the new æra of English botany were Brewer, Blackstone, Miller, Blackwell, Catesby, and Houston. Collinson, Hill, Ehret, and Watson, were the connecting links between the improved æra of Ray and of Linnæus: they belong chiefly to the latter. The *Specimen Botanicum* of Blackstone was the last work of English botany on the system of Ray: from that period, the genius of Linnæus began to rise superior, and it is no disgrace to England to yield the laurel, for it was truly honourable to have retained it so long. If there is any imputation on the English botanist, it is that Ray so long resisted improvements; and their perseverance

is more censurable, than their facility. The account of sir William Watson is copious and particular: it is the tribute, in a great degree, of private friendship, and we know that it is difficult to stop, when engaged in an office of this kind. The short account of Linnæus, added, is that of his earlier life before his system was completely established. It is executed with our author's usual care.

The Botanical History of Scotland and of Ireland is interwoven with the progress of English botany, in the chronological order. We have preferred mentioning each separately. They do not form very important groups. Alan Ogilby was rather a physician than a botanist, and his six remaining books *De Virtutibus Herbarum* scarcely intitle him to a place in this history. The first Scottish botanist on record was Dr. Cargill of Aberdeen, who assisted Caspar Bauhine, Lobel, and Gesner, with his communications, but left no work of his own. But every branch of natural history of Scotland dawned only with Balfour and Sibbald. It scarcely arrived at a meridian splendour, within the limits assigned by Dr. Pulteney to these Sketches, for Alston never attained any considerable eminence in this branch. After the establishment of the Linnæan system, Lightfoot and Hope have added considerably to our knowledge of Caledonian vegetables. The merit of the latter is less generally known, as it was not extended by numerous publications; but we may be allowed to mention, with respect and applause, his diligence and attention, the mild urbanity of his manners, and his unremitting zeal to promote the knowledge of the science, which he professed—His *saltem accumulamus Donis*.

The most rare Irish plants probably still 'blush unseen.' They have experienced only the casual glances of travellers; for of Heaton's discoveries, we have nothing but an abstract in Threlkeld's Synopsis, which was enriched also by the observations of Molyneux. Threlkeld was a parasite plant, which drew his chief nourishment from others. Our author gives no account of Keagh's *Botanologia Universalis Hybernica*; and we cannot supply the deficiency. The only other accounts of the botany of Ireland exist in Smith's County Histories, so that the gleanings of such imperfect harvests will probably be considerable.

We have thus sketched the most distinguishing tracts of these curious and instructive volumes. We leave them with regret, for they contain much information communicated in a pleasing manner.

Medical

Medical Botany, containing Systematic and General Descriptions, with Plates of all the Medicinal Plants, Indigenous and Exotic, comprehended in the Catalogues of the Materia Medica, as published by the Royal Colleges of Physicians of London and Edinburgh: By William Woodville, M. D. Vol. I. 4to. 1l. 10s. Boards. Phillips. 1791.

As the different Numbers of this elegant publication are now collected into one volume, they become an object of our attention; and it is with pleasure that we introduce a work where ornament and instruction are so intimately united, without exorbitant expence or indiscriminate compilation.

The plants used in medicine, though the first object of the botanist's attention, were, however, as we have seen, described so vaguely and unscientifically, that it was difficult to find the vegetable, or to determine whether, in process of time, the same name may not have been differently applied. Add to this, that from the extensive intercourse of this kingdom to the East and West Indies, the number of medicines has increased faster than the knowledge of the plants from which they are derived. Thus the source of the opobalsamum, the balsam Peru, of the ipecacuanha, and various other medicines, have only been indisputably ascertained within a very few years; while the plant which produces the myrrh, the gum ammoniac, and the columbo root, are still unknown. Of the early authors who described the vegetables of the more distant countries, Rumphius, Piso, and Margrave claim the preference; and we remember Dr. Hope remarking, that he thought he had found the description of the columbo plant* in the first of these authors. In more modern periods, Mrs. Blackwell, with a laudable industry, during the misfortunes of her husband, applied herself to drawing, and particularly selected the medicinal plants as objects of her attention. They are executed with great accuracy, but Plenck and Zorne deserve the praise of a more copious collection, and a more splendid execution. Regnault, in the same line, with equal accuracy, has the advantage of being constantly referred to by Murray.

Dr. Woodville combines the botanical history and description of medicinal plants with their properties and use, rendering his work a comprehensive system of the materia medica. We could have wished that he had followed the natural orders of Dr. Murray, whose fifth volume is, we perceive, published; but, besides that our author's plan is confined to

* Mr. Ives tells us that it is the root of the shrub that bears the coculus Indicus.

the vegetable remedies in the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias, we know that plates of plants must be executed when the opportunity offers. The arrangement, according to their medical effects, is reserved for the last volume; and, if it promises any advantage, it will be also easy at that time to arrange them according to their botanical analogy; but, as the volume is regularly paged, it will be difficult and inconvenient to change the order of the plates.

In the conduct of the work, Dr. Woodville collects his materials from the best authorities. Of the systematic writers, his chief supports are Bergius, an author of real value, though little attended to; Murray, whose work we have often had occasion to commend; and, above all, Cullen. Various other authors, who in their practical works have mentioned the different remedies, or in different collections, have more particularly treated of a single one, are quoted with minuteness, and, we believe, with accuracy. Indeed the chief fault we discover in the compilation is that Dr. Woodville too often transcribes the words of his authors, when he might have given the substance. He first gives the botanical description, and next adds the medical virtues.

The plants figured in this volume are,

‘ The millefolium, aconitum, althæa, zingiber, angelica, bardana, arnica, arum, belladonna, galbanum, cardamine, caruon, carduus benedictus, flammula Jovis, cochlearia hortenſis, cicuta, convallaria, scammonium, jalapium, cascarilla, mezereum, digitalis, contrayerva, asafœtida, manna, hederâ terreſtris, gratiola, guaiacum, lignum campecheſe, helleborus niger, helleboraster, hyoſcyamus, hypericum, hyſſopus, imperatoria, iris Florentina, iris paluſtris, cinnamomum, ſaſſafras, laurus, lavendula, taraxacum, lobelia, malva, trifolium paluſoſum, elaterium, pimento, nicotiana, lujula, plantago, biſtorta, filix, pentaphyllum, granatum, rhabarbarum, ricinus, ruta, ſalvia, naſturtium aquaticum, dulcamara, marum Syriacum, ſcordium, tormentilla, tuſſilago, becabunga.’

We cannot follow our author in his account of each plant, or point out minutely ſome of the opinions, which are perhaps leſs deſenſible. He is in general accurate, and his accounts, though ſhort, are uſually judicious. Our readers will perceive that, in this enumeration, there are ſome plants whoſe icons are not eaſily met with, and ſome, which have not been reſented in any work on medicinal plants. After a little heſitation, and a careful compariſon, we think the account of the caſcarilla is the beſt ſpecimen of our author's plan, and his ability in the different parts of his varied object. Though it is longer than we wiſhed the ſpecimen to be, we ſhall not cur-

tail it by any abridgment or omission, except the quotation from Dr. Lewis.

* *Croton Cascarilla.* Cascarilla, or, willow-leaved croton.

* *Synonyma.* Cascarilla. *Pharm. Lond. & Edinb. olim elutheria dicta.* Ricino affinis odorifera fruticosa major, rosmarini folio, fructu tricocco albido. *Sloane Jam. p. 133. tab. 86.* Croton (*Rosmarinifolium*) foliis lineari-lanceolatis, glabris, subtus argenteis, caule fruticoso, floribus spicatis terminalibus. *Mill. Dict.* Croton *lineare* foliis linearibus integerrimis obtusis subtus tomentosis, caule fruticoso. *Aiton. Hort. Kew. vol. iii. p. 374.* *Jacquin Stirp. Americ. 256. tab. 162.* *Am. Acad. 5 p. 411.*

Class Monoecia. *Ord.* Monodelphia. *L. Gen. Plant.* 1083.

Eff. Gen. Ch. *Masc. Cal.* cylindricus, 5-dentatus.

Cor. 5-petala. *Stam.* 10-15.

Fem. Cal. polyphyllus *Cor.* 0. *Styli* 3, bifidi.

Caps. 3-locularis. *Sem.* 1.

Sp. Ch. *C. fol.* lanceolatis acutis integerrimis petiolatis subtus tomentosis, caule arboreo.

* This shrub never rises to any considerable height; it sends off several round branches, and is covered with a brown bark, the external coat of which is white and rough: the leaves are long, narrow, entire, somewhat pointed, placed on short footstalks, above of a bright green colour, beneath downy, and of a silvery whiteness; the stipulæ, or scaly leaves, are narrow and lance-shaped; the flowers are produced about July, in a long terminal spike, and are both male and female: the male flowers are placed uppermost, and are furnished with a cylindrical calyx, cut at its extremity into five segments; the petals are five, small, oval, and of a white or yellowish colour; the stamina are numerous, commonly from ten to fifteen. The female flowers have no corolla; the calyx consists of five or six oval leaves; the styles are three, forked; the capsule divides into three cells, each of which contains a single seed.

* Writers on the *Materia Medica* have differed much respecting the plant which produces the officinal cortex cascarillæ; and even now this point does not appear to be sufficiently ascertained: the London College has therefore cautiously avoided making any botanical reference to the plant which affords it. Linnæus, whose authority is certainly the best, in his first edition of the *Mat. Med.* considered the cascarilla as a species of the clutia; but in the second edition it is described as a croton, and in his *Amœnitates Academicæ* we are again presented with the clutia cascarilla. What adds to this uncertainty is, that under both these genera it is referred to the same synonyma of Sloane and Browne; yet it is remarkable, that neither of these authors notices the medicinal uses

of its bark, although so long known as a medicine in great estimation in every part of Europe.

‘ The plant, from which the annexed figure of the cascarilla is taken, was found to agree very accurately with the generic character of the croton, as the plate itself must evince : we are therefore under no difficulty in assigning it to that genus. Whether the cascarilla then is really a croton or a clusia, depends upon the fidelity and precision with which the synonyma have been respectively applied.’

‘ The agreeable odour which this bark produces during its burning, induced many to smoke it mixed with tobacco, before it became known as a medicine in Europe, which was not till towards the latter end of the last century ; when it was recommended by professor Stiffer, who found it to be a powerful diuretic and carminative, and who used it with success in calculous, asthmatic, phthisical, scorbutic, and arthritic complaints. After this it was sold at Brunswick as a species of the Peruvian bark, and many physicians in Germany experienced its good effects in fevers of the intermittent, remittent, and putrid kind. But while the facts establishing this febrifuge power of the cascarilla are supported by authors of great respectability, they are yet so little regarded, that this medicine is now very rarely prescribed in fevers, either in this country, or on the neighbouring continent. In intermittents, however, there can be no doubt but this bark, or indeed any other medicine possessing tonic and aromatic qualities, may frequently effect a cure. The German physicians have also given much credit to the cascarilla as an astringent, and recommended it in hæmorrhages, and various alvine fluxes, in which several instances of its utility are recorded.

‘ Dr. Cullen was in doubt whether to class this drug with the aromatics or with the tonics, but he determined upon the latter as the most proper ; besides its being stomachic and corroborant, it is also reported to be diuretic ; but proofs of its efficacy in particular diseases have not (as far as we know) been ascertained, nor even attempted by any adequate trials made in this country. We shall not therefore follow a late ingenious author, in depreciating this medicine, from a mere speculation on its sensible qualities, but rather recommend it to the medical practitioner, as deserving a farther trial. It promises most advantage given in substance, the dose of which is from 15 grains to a dram.’

The plants are drawn and engraved with great accuracy, spirit, and elegance ; the habits and the proportions properly preserved. This part of the work reflects great credit on the artist, Mr. Sowerby. The colouring is occasionally too glaring,

glaring, and sometimes the artist seems too much attached to a deep muddy purple tint, which does not occur in the natural object. We usually found the representation more accurate when we looked on the opposite side, while we held the engraving against the light.—On the whole, however, we highly approve of this work, and think it an indispensable addition to every medical library.

A new Geographical, Commercial, and Historical Grammar; and present State of the several Empires and Kingdoms of the World. The Whole executed on a Plan similar to that of Will. Guthrie, Esq. By a Society in Edinburgh. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1791.

THIS work is presented to the public with a variety of specious circumstances, all tending to magnify its importance. It is entered in Stationers' Hall; it is dedicated to the duke of Buccleugh; and the editor, after remarking that '*a scandalous deficiency* may be observed in the most approved modern publications of this kind,' proceeds to acquaint us with the difficulty which his friends, who, we are given to understand, compose a learned society in Edinburgh, had experienced, and the care they had taken to arrange and adjust the various departments of the work properly to one another; adding to all these considerations, that it is '*an original work.*' To prepossess the reader yet more in its favour, we are told that it is executed upon a plan *similar* to that of Guthrie's Grammar, which is doubtless the most valuable of the kind that has hitherto been published.

Our attention having been particularly excited by so plausible an exordium, we resolved on giving the work a very close examination; and, for this purpose, placed before us Guthrie's Geographical Grammar, that we might impartially compare the two productions together. No sooner had we begun the comparison than the *similarity* appeared indeed too obvious to entertain any doubt of the plan which had been pursued by the very ingenious Edinburgh society. In short, we immediately discovered, that this *laboured*, this original work, for the security of which the authors had entrenched themselves in Stationers' Hall, was no other than Guthrie's Grammar, disguised with the alteration of words, and transposition of sentences. Some of Guthrie's notes also are artfully foisted into the text, while, on the other hand, several of his best observations are converted into notes.

That our readers may be enabled to judge for themselves, how far the present work is a transcript of Guthrie's, we shall lay

lay before them a few specimens. We begin with the first paragraph of the Introduction.

Guthrie's Edition.

'The science of Geography cannot be completely understood without considering the earth as a *planet*, or as a body moving round another at a considerable distance from it. But the science which treats of the planets and other heavenly bodies is called *Astronomy*, thence the necessity of beginning this work with an account of Astronomy, or of the heavenly bodies. Of these the most conspicuous is that *glorious luminary* the sun, the fountain of light and heat to the several planets which move round it; and which, together with the sun, compose what astronomers have called the *Solar System*. The way or path in which the planets move round the sun is called their *Orbit*.'

Edinburgh Edition.

'The foundation of the whole science of Geography rests upon *astronomical observations*. These can neither be made nor understood without considering the earth as a *planet*, or body moving round the sun at a vast distance from it. Hence in this work, we must begin with a description of the celestial bodies. Among these, the first place is claimed by that *glorious luminary* the sun, the fountain of light, heat and life, not only to the earth we inhabit, but to a number of other bodies which revolve round it, at immense distances, constituting what we call the *Solar System*. All these move in paths nearly circular, which is called their *Orbits*.'

The problems performed on the globe are the same in both the works, only in the new one the identity is attempted to be concealed by a few transpositions. The sixth in Guthrie is placed the third by the Edinburgh society; and one of Guthrie's has furnished them with an opportunity of dividing it into two or three. The like observations recur in the geographical observations. Guthrie's thirteen are reduced, in this *original* work, to the number of twelve.

In the same manner, in 'The General History of all Nations,' Guthrie is invariably the text, on the most interesting subjects, with only a few alterations.

Guthrie's Edition.

'The bare names of *illustrious men* who flourished in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander would fill a large volume. It was not, however, in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy was cultivated among them with the utmost success. Not to mention the divine *Socrates*, the virtues of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration: his three disciples, *Plato*, *Aristotle* and *Xenophon*, may for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be put on a footing with the writers of *any age or country*. Experience indeed, in a long course of years, hath taught us many secrets in nature, with which these philosophers were unacquainted, and which no

Edinburgh Edition.

'That many *eminent men* flourished in Greece, from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, is certain. The Greeks excelled in the arts of architecture, sculpture, and painting. The most celebrated *statesmen*, *philosophers*, and *warriors*, were produced among the Greeks. The writings of *Socrates*, *Plato*, *Aristotle* and *Xenophon*, may be justly compared with those of *any age*, or in *any country*; and indeed many *learned and ingenious men* in modern times have acknowledged the superiority of the Greeks in these respects. We have already taken notice of their skill in military affairs; to which we may now assert, that by the Greeks, *war* was first reduced to a *science*.'

strength of genius could divine. The most learned and ingenious men, both in France and England have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expression. But the Greeks were not less distinguished for their active than for their speculative talents. It would be needless to recount the names of their famous statesmen and warriors, and it is impossible to mention a few without doing injustice to a greater number. War was reduced to a science by the Greeks.

That the Society's Introduction might have more pages than Guthrie's, they have enlarged both the Roman History and that of the Jews; the latter of which is abridged from the Scripture, for the instruction, we presume, of those who are not inclined to read the Bible. Neither Guthrie, nor the learned visitors of Tadmor or Palmyra, have taken upon themselves to determine with certainty concerning the founder of that sequestered and ancient city, though they are inclined to think that it owed its rise to Solomon: but this doubtful point is at once cleared up by the society, who, by some 'original communications,' or rather indeed inspiration, assure us that 'Solomon was the real builder.'

The following instances prove likewise their 'scrupulous attention to accuracy,' and what great improvements they have made on Guthrie in mensuration and numeration.

<i>Guthrie's Edition.</i>			<i>Edinburgh Edition.</i>		
	Square miles.			Square miles.	
'The Globe —	199,512,595	—	—	200,000,000	—
Oceans, seas & } unknown parts }	160,522,026	—	—	160,000,000	—
The habitable World	38,990,569	—	—	40,000,000	—
Europe	4,456,065	—	—	4,500,000	—
Asia	10,768,823	—	—	11,000,000	—
Africa	9,654,807	—	—	10,000,000	—
America	14,110,874	—	—	14,000,000	—
'Isle of Wight	—	150	—	—	146
Barbadoes	—	140	—	—	139
Antigua	—	100	—	—	101
Guernsey	—	50	—	—	49
Rhode Island	—	36	—	—	35

The like small change of figures will be found in the contents of Spain, Prussia, and every other kingdom and state. Has this artifice been adopted by the learned society to conceal their plagiarism, or have they actually measured every country and island on the globe?

We shall take another subject of comparison from the quantity of provisions annually consumed in London.

Black

<i>Guthrie's Edition.</i>	
Black cattle	98,244
Sheep and Lambs	711,123
Calves	194,760
Swine	186,932
Pigs	52,000
Oysters, bushels	115,536
Mackarel sold at Billingsgate	14,740,000
Barrels of strong Beer	1,172,494
of small	798,495

<i>Edinburgh Edition.</i>	
	98,245
	711,124
	194,770
	186,934
	52,000
	115,536
	14,740,100
	1,172,494
	798,495

They choose to agree also with Guthrie in the gallons of milk, pounds of cheese, and tons of foreign wine.

We give them great credit for the following *ingenious device of concealment*, in placing the list of the Danish revenue; the first must be last, and the last first, as

<i>Guthrie's Edition.</i>	
	Rix-dollars.
'Tribute of hard corn or land tax	1,000,000
Small taxes	950,000
Custom-house duties	154,000
Duties of the Sound	200,000
—of Jutland from salt-pits	27,000
Tithes & poll-tax of Norway	770,000
Tolls of Bergen, &c.	160,000
Other tolls	552,000
Revenue from mines	300,000
—from Sleswick, Holstein, &c.	690,000
Taxes on acorns, &c.	20,000
Tolls on the Weser	7,500
Post office	70,000
Farms of Iceland and Ferro	35,000
Farms of Bornholm	14,800
Oyster fishery	22,000
Stamp paper	40,000
	5,012,300

In English money £1,002,460

<i>Edinburgh Edition.</i>	
	Rix-dollars.
'Stamp paper	40,000
Oyster fishery	22,000
Farms of Bornholm	14,800
—of Iceland and Ferro	35,000
Tolls on the Weser	7,500
Taxes on acorns, &c.	20,000
Post office	70,000
Revenue from Holstein, &c.	690,000
Revenue from mines	300,000
Tolls of Bergen, &c.	160,000
Other tolls	552,000
Tithes & poll-tax of Norway	770,000
Custom-house duties	154,000
Duties of Jutland, &c.	27,000
Duties of the Sound	200,000
Small taxes	950,000
Tribute of hard corn, &c.	1,000,000
	5,012,300

This ingenious society seems to be extremely well acquainted with the art of transposing words, articles, and passages, out of their original order.

We naturally expected that this edition, though *similar* to, and even copied from, that of Guthrie, would have had some additions under the articles of Egypt and Abyssinia; but the learned editors do not appear to be acquainted with the merits of Savary, and other gentlemen, who have lately visited those countries; and very little use is made even of Bruce's Travels or observations. To what Guthrie had given of the history of Egypt, the Edinburgh society have indeed added a copious abridgment of the Scripture History concerning the Israelites, and their journey towards Canaan; for elucidating which they have even stripped sacred geography of the antiquated maps of the wilderness.

Arabia

Arabia is almost the only country where they have ventured to deviate from their guide. They have been at the pains to transcribe several pages from Thomson's Journey to Mount Sinai, though so far back as the year 1724: and so much has their attention been occupied by that celebrated mountain, that they have entirely omitted to take notice of any of the Arabian cities. Not even Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, nor Medina, where he was buried, are so much as mentioned; though particular descriptions of those celebrated places were before them in Guthrie. It seems as if the transcriber to the society, when he came to this part of the work, had unfortunately turned over two leaves instead of one, and by that means omitted those interesting objects.

On turning our eyes to the North American and West India Islands, and to South America, we found that those places had but little engaged the attention of the Society. The gentlemen were satisfied, as usual, with borrowing from Guthrie; only they have thought proper (as a proof, no doubt, of their own accuracy) to vary the mensuration of the islands. Of this expedient the following few instances may suffice.

<i>Guthrie's Edition.</i>			<i>Edinburgh Edition.</i>		
	Square miles.			Square miles.	
Newfoundland	—	35,500	—	—	35,400
Cape Breton	—	4,000	—	—	4,010
Cuba	—	38,400	—	—	83
St. Kitts	—	80	—	—	151
Granada	—	150	—	—	120
Antigua	—	100			

Their chief ingenuity and labour are displayed in the article of North America. Instead of keeping British America and the United States separate, after the manner of their predecessor, and giving a particular account and history of each province, from its first settlement, they have huddled all together in short extracts from Guthrie, comprising the whole in only thirty pages.

In the historical part of the work respecting England, they have not deduced the narrative beyond the peace of 1783, though their guide has continued it to a later period. In treating of Spain, they inform us, that the Spaniards were allowed by that treaty, 'to keep possession of Minorca and West Florida, though the province of East Florida and the Bahama Islands, as well as all other conquests, were to be restored.' Guthrie would have better instructed them, that Great Britain gave up East Florida, and also ceded West Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war.

Many other errors might be pointed out. Guthrie, in his account of Cyprus, observes, 'Richard I. king of England, subdued it, on account of its king's treachery, and the royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem,

from

from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.' As this learned society will now and then have a few words of their own, they express themselves thus: 'the island was reduced by Richard I. of England, who bestowed the royal title on Guy de Lusignan, king of Jerusalem. From him it passed to the Venetians, who still hold it, but the Turks are the only possessors.'

A blunder of another kind drew our attention, in the account of Tripoli, one of the states of Barbary. Guthrie had said, Tripoli was one of the richest, most populous, and opulent, of all the states on the coast, but it is now much reduced, and their inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines. The gentlemen of the society transcribe him thus: 'Tripoli was formerly a place of great consequence, but is now reduced; however, it still has 4 or 500,000 inhabitants; but their character is very indifferent.'

Heartily tired and disgusted in travelling with the members of this society through foreign parts, we hoped for some satisfaction from them in the account of their own country, Scotland. But even in this, the greatest part of Guthrie is copied. In the articles of religion and learning, they have been content with giving a very imperfect abridgement; and even on the nature of the constitution of Scotland, they have scarcely ventured to turn their eyes from their text-book.

Guthrie's Edition.

'The ancient constitution and government in Scotland hath been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority. But the Scottish constitution of government was too much of the aristocratic kind to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was sufficiently restrained, but the nobles, chieftains and great landholders had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppress their tenants and the common people.'

Edinburgh Edition.

'In former times, the power of the Scottish kings is said to have been limited by the laws in such a manner as was extremely favourable to the liberty of the people. But though this might be the case with regard to the king, it is certain that the constitution was by far too favourable to the power of the Nobles, who were allowed to oppress the common people in a cruel manner, but might likewise endanger the sovereign power itself whenever their ambition prompted them to raise disturbances.'

In the same page from which this extract is taken, Guthrie inserted the form of the ancient Scottish coronation-oath. The Edinburgh society thought that to place the oath as a note would be a proof that their work was *original*.

The Edinburgh society have hazarded an opinion of their own,

own, respecting the union of the two kingdoms, which they represent as disadvantageous to Scotland, by checking its trade, occasioning a neglect of agriculture, and a general scarcity through the country. In other parts of the narrative, however, they boast of the rapid progress which improvements have made since the union, and even since the abolition of the heretable jurisdictions in 1748; 'so that every thing which has been said concerning the ancient or former state of Scotland, is not in the smallest degree applicable to it at this day—and that the people are now every where as much civilised, nay, in general, much more than their southern neighbours.' Their extracts from Guthrie reciting the numerous manufactures carried on in that kingdom, and the increase of commerce, riches, stately plantations, and buildings, within only a few years, are decisive proofs against them, in favour of the salutary operation of the union.

As the Edinburgh geographers give us nothing new or important respecting their own country, we did not expect any thing additional in their account of England. Here they have servilely copied Guthrie, with the usual mode of altering and transposing of words and sentences. A hundred instances might be adduced in support of this remark; but the following may be sufficient:

Guthrie's Edition.

'The English *massiffs* and *bull-dogs* are said to be the strongest and fiercest of the canine species in the world, but either from the change of soil or feeding they *degenerate* in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of *experiment*, turned out two English bull-dogs upon one of the fiercest lions in the tower, and they soon conquered him. The *massiff* however hath all the courage of the bull-dog, without its *ferocity*, and is particularly distinguished for his fidelity and docility.'

Edinburgh Edition.

'The *massiffs* and *bull-dogs* of England are the fiercest in the world, but the former are to be preferred, having the strength and courage of the bull-dog without his *ferocity*, and are remarkably docile and faithful to their master. The strength and courage of the English bull dog was manifested by an *experiment* of James I. who caused two of them to be turned out upon one of the fiercest lions of the tower, whom they soon conquered. These dogs, however *degenerate* in foreign climates.'

We should far exceed our bounds, were we to specify the many instances either of *ignorance* or *carelessness* in the *chronology* of this edition. They say 'that in 1421, the Picts having been commanded to submit to the laws of the Romans in Britain, soon began to repent of their new alliance.'—And they place Charles the Second's death in 1687.

The geographical index, the table of the coins of all nations, and the chronological table of remarkable events, are generally copied from Guthrie, with little addition or improvement. We observe, indeed, a small difference with regard to the latitude and longitude of Borrowstouness, in the vicinity of Edinburgh, which is, no doubt, of great importance to geography.

Several

80 *Bowles's Consideration of the Rights of Judges and Jury.*

Several particulars evince, that the very 'elegant maps engraved on purpose' for this original work, have been copied from those of Guthrie's last edition; and, on comparison, the latter have a manifest superiority. Even where errors occur, they are faithfully copied in this highly finished set of maps.

After what has been said, the reader cannot be at a loss to estimate the real value of what the editor calls an original work.

Considerations on the respective Rights of Judge and Jury: particularly upon Trials for Libel. Occasioned by an expected Motion of the Right Hon. Charles-James Fox. By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Whieldon and Butterworth. 1791.

THE real friends to liberty, especially that of the press, are those who exert their talents to prevent its degenerating into licentiousness, to which it has a constant tendency. At this time many writers think it impossible to endow mankind with too much freedom; but history and experience evince that, beyond certain limits, human nature is not to be trusted with it. An excess of this great blessing never fails to produce that anarchy and confusion, which naturally terminate in despotism. As fashion influences our dress, it has some effect even on political and juridical sentiments. At present the fashion of considering every friend to a rational and moderate system of government as an advocate for despotism and tyranny, is too prevalent. Too many seem to propose new experiments in the science of laws and legislation, in which the happiness and tranquillity of millions are concerned, with as much carelessness and indifference as they would propose an experiment in natural philosophy. The never-failing argument is, that we do not possess sufficient liberty, but must be ever aiming at a greater portion of it. Real liberty, therefore, seems at present, in much greater danger from this restless and innovating spirit than from any attempts of the advocates for what are stigmatised as slavish doctrines. These reflections have arisen in our minds from the perusal of the well written dissertation before us; and we shall ever think, when an ingenious author, like Mr. Bowles, publicly comes forward on the unpopular side of an important question, and endeavours with so much force to convince mankind that the law they live under is perfectly wise and equitable, he deserves to be heard with candor and attention.

In opposition to the declamation of the over-zealous and injudicious friends to the liberty of the press, Mr. Bowles endeavours to show that, according to our constitution, the judges are, and ought ever to be, the sole expounders of the law, in questions

questions relative to libels, and that the province of the jury is the matter of fact only. All the popular objections to this doctrine are here legally and constitutionally considered, and the whole question placed in a clear and satisfactory point of view. We shall insert the following extract, near the conclusion, and recommend the work to the perusal of those who wish to form a dispassionate and well founded opinion on the subject.

‘ I cannot help taking notice of the injustice of those observations which have frequently been made, and which represent the doctrine, that juries have no cognizance of the law, as tending to convert them into mere cyphers. Are juries cyphers while they are determining whether a person has really done those facts, which are alledged against him by way of a criminal charge? Are they cyphers while their jurisdiction extends over the immense range of all the transactions and circumstances that can be made the subject of judicial enquiry—a jurisdiction coextensive with the limits of human conduct, considering man as a social being? Are they cyphers while distinguishing from evidence whether a wrong is levelled against the peace and happiness of mankind, or, whether it is meant only to convey abstract and justifiable sentiments? yet such are the powers that the above doctrine permits to juries—subject indeed to the limitation founded in the clearest reason, that they can decide only upon the truth of such facts as are referred to their investigation. It rather appears that the contrary system may with justice be arraigned, as aiming at the subversion of the authority and the usefulness of judges. If it be true, that a jury has a right to decide the law (the exercise of which right, being entirely at their discretion, must be without restriction or control), then indeed are the *judges* merely cyphers, and all the pomp and solemnity with which the constitution has distinguished their office, only serve to render their insignificance more visible.’

A Critical Analysis and Review of all Mr. Voltaire's Works, with occasional Disquisitions on Epic Poetry, the Drama, Romance, &c. By Mr. Linguet. Translated from the French by James Boardman. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1791.

THE late complete publication of Voltaire's writings, by M. Beaumarchais, renders this a well-timed production; but Mr. Linguet's principles of criticism do not appear to us sufficiently ample or just to qualify him for the task which he has undertaken. The Essay on the Writings and Genius of Pope might have afforded our author a good model for this species of composition: but small is the portion of taste, and

still smaller that of learning, which has fallen to Mr. Linguet's share.

The book opens with some general observations on Voltaire and his writings. Our author refrains from speaking of the private life of that great man, observing justly, 'Let us not furnish matter to that treacherous curiosity which seeks for anecdotes of an illustrious man, with a view rather to derive consolation under his superiority, than to add to his fame.' A remark which we would warmly recommend to those anecdote-hunters with whom the republic of letters is at present so infested.

Mr. Linguet proceeds to mention the extreme sensibility of Voltaire, and his propensity to satire and to adulation; after which he gives a general idea of his numerous and various works. Speaking of Voltaire's work on the Newtonian system, Mr. Linguet condescends to inform all the world, in a note, that 'this theory at bottom is not more solid than that of Descartes.' Mr. Linguet is an advocate and a politician, and we will be bold enough to say, that he knows nothing of the Newtonian system: but a Frenchman is apt to prate upon every subject, and must of consequence speak rashly and ignorantly ninety-nine times in the hundred.

Our author afterwards attempts to explain the causes of Voltaire's fertility of talents; and some of his observations we shall beg leave to lay before our readers.

'First, the youth of almost all our celebrated authors has been usually spent either in painful struggles, or in those embarrassments which attend on what is called the choice of a profession; they are tyrannized over for a long time, or at least impeded in their progress by the importunities of their relations, if not by their own necessities: there is hardly one in whom the first efforts of genius have not been combated as a passion which it was necessary to repress, or at least to watch over as something dangerous. Enfeebled by distress, still more grievous than restraint, it was even amidst the toil of ignoble occupations, very opposite to the natural bent of their inclination, that the greater part have given birth to those productions which have established their fame.

'There are therefore very few amongst them of whose abilities the public may be supposed capable of forming an adequate opinion. — At an age when cultivation, exercise, and liberty, are necessary to nourish, call forth, and strengthen their talents; care withers, and slavery stifles them. When the reputation is established, it is then again too late, they then become enervated by rest and plenty. When young, literary men are removed from the world, with which a moderate commerce, sought for on the one hand without degradation and granted on the other without the pomp of patronage,

tronage, might serve greatly to their improvement; at a more advanced period of life, they are hurried into it, courted, caressed, and become so absorbed in its pleasures, as to have no time left for labor and study.'

Mr. Linguet justly observes, that the situation of Voltaire was very different; furnished, as he was, with a settled fortune in early life, educated by the Jesuits, by Ninon de l'Enclos, by the Vendomes, the Chaulieux, the duchefs de Maine, and her courtiers. In opening his literary career he had few rivals. Rousseau (J. B.) was overwhelmed with misfortunes. Crebillon and La Motte threatened no very formidable contest. Our critic then gives some remarks on the universality of genius, tending to shew, that a man of great abilities in one line may be the same in any other which he pleases to follow. But we do not chuse to detail his absurd and sophistic reasoning upon this subject, content with the poet's answer:

' One subject only will one genius fit,
' So vast is art, so narrow human wit.'

After passing these general observations, we come to the first part of the book, of Mr. Voltaire's poetical works. In the *Henriade* it is very easy to find faults, and Mr. Linguet has accordingly found many. His criticism on this pretended epic is undoubtedly just; but it employs too much of his work: for the *Henriade* is now universally neglected; and though it be a noble province of criticism to evince that a neglected poem is good, it can serve no purpose to shew that a neglected poem is bad. His seventy pages upon this epic might have been restricted to this one paragraph, p. 69.

' It appears true then, that the author of the *Henriade* has not embellished his subject, that he has even voluntarily weakened it, by neglecting to avail himself of those beauties which naturally arise out of it; and instead of that mixture of fiction which in other epic poems, whose names have been consecrated by time, furnishes the ground of a career at once so rapid and notwithstanding so well sustained, so varied, and so interesting; we find in this but a frigid monotony; we admire, indeed, the fine verses with which it often abounds, especially in the level and descriptive parts, but the events neither excite interest or passion. In a word, if I may be permitted to give my opinion, the *Henriade* is rather a dissertation in rhyme, an ornamented treatise in verse, on the latter half of the sixteenth century, than a poem.'

Our critic's intermingled remarks upon Homer, Virgil, Ariosto, Tasso, and Milton, we shall beg leave to pass over, as being seldom new, and seldom just. He concludes his ob-

servations on the *Henriade* by saying, that its chief merit consists in collecting together in the text and in the notes the principal events of an epoch, ever memorable to the French nation: and that it was a mere sketch, drawn up in early youth, and which Voltaire, during his life, laboured to polish, but never thought of improving or enlarging the plan of it; and had he conceived the design, perhaps he might not have been able to execute it.

Voltaire's second epic poem, "The Maid of Orleans," next engages Mr. Linguet's attention, and meets with much censure upon the score of obscenity and ribaldry. The comparison between it and Ariosto's *Orlando* is, in our opinion, the best specimen of criticism which this book affords. But we suspect that our critic takes too high a key. Ariosto's immortal poem is laboured and great, while that of M. Voltaire is a mere *badinage*.

Proceeding to Voltaire's tragedies, Mr. Linguet observes, that 'the first and last steps of Mr. Voltaire have been towards the theatre; he finished his literary life with *Irene*, as he began it with *Œdipus*.' Mr. L. is a great admirer of Racine; and Voltaire, Corneille, and Crebillon, are all sacrificed to his idol. He observes, that Voltaire

'Possessed of every imaginable mental resource; was deficient in that eloquence of the heart, those powers of expression, sometimes soft and at others impetuous, at once abundant and chaste, which are necessary to an adequate delineation of the conflicts, the delicacies, and the transports of love; an eloquence, precision, and abundance, which in poetry has been granted among the Romans to Virgil alone; among the Italians to Ariosto and Tasso, in France to the author of *Phædra*, and among other nations to no one.'

Mr. Linguet's criticisms upon the drama are frequently most erroneous. He sets up his own peculiar taste as a standard, without giving any eminent proof of critical abilities; and pretends to be a prophet, without working one miracle. If he prefer the mild graces of the drama to its terrors, what are his feelings to those who are possessed of stronger minds and superior taste? Mr. Linguet may be fond of partridges, but should any one of his readers for that reason abandon the solid nourishment of beef? His particular remarks on Voltaire are sometimes truly puerile: as, for instance, he objects, p. 114, to Cæsar being termed a *traitor*, and says, that word is only employed for the sake of the rhyme; and 'never was the brave, the generous Cæsar, accused of treason or perfidy.' Good sir, was not Cæsar in the justest and strictest sense, a
traitor

traitor to his country? Strange, that a Frenchman should forget *leze-nation*!

In p. 129, we are told,

‘ It is to Greece we are indebted for the drama, in common with all the other arts. In architecture, sculpture, poetry, and eloquence, this ingenious people soon emerged from barbarism. The theatre alone retained among them in its maturity the same character it had in its origin, and unhappily for us this was a monstrous one.’

Mon cher Monsieur! do learn a little modesty, and do not conceive that wisdom is born with you, and that all the great writers of all nations, who totally differ from you upon this subject, were blind. If your mind be too effeminate, and your eyes too weak, to bear the terrible radiance of the Greek drama, do retire to a dark corner, and do not insult others because of your singular sensations.

To an English reader, Crebillon will ever appear to have caught more of the sublime terror of tragedy than any other French poet. But what does our *soi-disant* critic say concerning this great writer?

‘ Be it said at the present day, when there remains no more of Crebillon than his works, when his posterity is even extinct, and that in appreciating his productions according to their real merit, we run no risk of hurting the feelings of any one; that though he had actually possessed, and was strongly impelled to a display of this horrible talent, it was by no means proper to sanction it by applause. But he had it not, at least he was contented with a single effort; as since *Atrea*, which, as I have already said, was but the second of his pieces, and may consequently be regarded as his debut, he is no more sombre than any other: he is only somewhat more harsh in his style, and oftentimes but a little more ridiculous in his plans.’

In considering the comedies of Voltaire, our author, always fond of dictating new and ignorant opinions, will have it, that a poet who writes a good tragedy may write a good comedy, if he please. The common sense of every man tells him, that an *universalist* is always superficial, and always in the middle class of writers. And we must say, that we place Voltaire only in this middle class; and the certain consequence of his attempting so many departments is, that he is superlative in none.

The next division concerns the fugitive and other poetical pieces; and in this department we agree with Mr. Linguet, that Voltaire shines: but this is, after all, but a middling merit.

We must close our remarks upon the poetical part with observing, that the translator ought always to have inserted the original verses upon which the strictures are made, and not a bald translation, from which the reader can seldom form a judgment.

The second part, but by far the shortest, concerns the most important of Voltaire's productions, his prose writings. Our author's statement of the number of good ancient prose writers, compared with that of the poets, p. 193, shews a risible deficiency of learning and sophistry of argument. And in p. 197 and 215, we have a deplorable proof of Mr. Linguet's want of taste, in a laboured defence and eulogy of the insipid romances of Calprenede, Gamberville, Scuderi, Durier, Desmarets, Voiture, &c. He who professes a warm admiration of such vapid trash, cannot be supposed capable of enjoying the beauties of the Greek drama, or any other object of genuine taste; and thus the standard of our author's criticism is at once established. His exultation, p. 204, that the French have no distinct language for poetry, is in his *usual taste*; and his notion, p. 210, that the crusaders had only to engage 'base Egyptians and effeminate Syrians,' while every school-boy knows, that in Egypt and Syria they contended with Saracens and Turks, the most warlike of nations at that time, is a specimen of his *usual learning*.

In p. 214, we find 'the fourth volume of these Annals' quoted, and the translator has left us quite in the dark as to these Annals, which we suppose to be the periodical work carried on by Mr. Linguet under that name, and in which this critique on Voltaire must have first appeared.

The remarks on the Age of Louis XIV. and on the Essay on Universal History, are not amiss. Our author, in p. 228, observes very justly, that 'history, properly so called, is supported by digressions in a still greater degree than by reflections.' In fact, the best ancient historians digress frequently, and a mere detail of facts would form a book of reference, and not of genius and entertainment.

We were quite at a loss to discover how this production came to be translated, and published in England, till we arrived towards the end, and found Mr. Linguet's censure of Voltaire's effusions against the Christian religion: from which we were led to infer, that the inducement to a translation was to erect this weak work as a bulwark against Voltaire's pernicious doctrines. But if Linguet be a poor critic on Voltaire, as an antagonist he is nothing; and there are abundance of able defenders of Christianity. His estimate of Cicero's writings, and his notions concerning the number of books, and of men of fortune in ancient Rome, could only occur to a writer
defi.

deficient in common learning, and who asserts at random whatever he pleases. What wonder that such an author should, in p. 257, doubt whether deism be atheism? which is the same as to doubt whether light be darkness. His idea of toleration is alike unjust. An able defender of religion would say, 'The Christian religion is of God, and fear is the baseness of man. What has religion to fear? Let infidelity be despised: let her assertors print their works as boldly and openly as those of Christianity. Then the odious complaint, that we fear the truth, will be done away, and infidelity shall not possess that strong-hold of proselytism, persecution.'

Observations and Remarks made during a Voyage to the Islands of Teneriffe, Amsterdam, Marias Islands, near Van Diemen's Land, Otaheite, Sandwich Islands, Owhyhee, the Fox Islands, on the North-West Coast of America, Tinian, and from thence to Canton, &c. By Lieutenant George Mortimer, of the Marines. 4to. 7s. 6d. Boards. Cadell. 1791.

THIS is a modest, sensible, and concise account of an interesting voyage. Mr. Mortimer, in his Introduction, makes some remarks upon the structure of the vessel in which he sailed, and mentions, that the voyage, though apparently undertaken by Mr. Cox from motives of curiosity, was not unproductive of public benefit. For the information concerning the island of Amsterdam has induced some adventurers to fit out vessels for the purpose of *sealing* (catching seals) and the whale fishery in its vicinity. And by the visit to Otaheite, he has been enabled to communicate such intelligence to the admiralty respecting the probable destination of the mutineers on board his majesty's ship *Bounty*, as it is hoped will enable captain Edwards, of the *Pandora* frigate, sent out expressly for the purpose of searching for those daring offenders, to bring them to the punishment they so justly deserve.

The voyage commenced on the 26th of February, 1789. The account of Teneriffe, though short, is not uninteresting; and we shall give a little specimen,

'The present inhabitants of Teneriffe are Spaniards, the original natives being nearly extinct, or so blended by intermarriages with the Spaniards, as not to be distinguished from them. They are in general of a very swarthy complexion; some of the ladies, however, who wear veils, and seldom stir out of the house till evening, are tolerably fair, being screened from the effects of the sun: upon the whole, they are a comely set of people, well-shaped, and easy and erect in their gait: they are remarkably polite, and you seldom meet a Spanish officer or gentleman who does not touch his hat as you pass; nay, the very peasants pay each other this mark of respect.'

The Pic of Teneriffe did not altogether answer the high expectations formed of its appearance: for its apparent altitude is considerably diminished by the height of the adjacent mountains.

After passing the Cape of Good Hope, without visiting it, they arrive at the island of Amsterdam, where they find great multitudes of seals; and in p. 14, we find some useful intelligence concerning the seal-catching and whale-fishery. New Holland is the next object; and there is a good account of the Maria islands, near Diemen's Land, on the southern promontory of New Holland. The account of the people of these islands is curious.

The next morning we again saw a smoke, nearly in the same direction as before, and proceeded as fast as possible to the spot. As we approached the shore, we observed several of the natives about the fire, and walking among the trees, some of them carrying very long poles and pieces of lighted wood in their hands. When they perceived we had landed, and were pretty near them, they began to chatter very loud and walk away; upon which we called to them, imitating their noise as well as we could, and had the satisfaction to see them stop at a little distance from us. Several of them having long poles or spears in their hands, we made signs to them to throw them aside, with which they immediately complied: and we in return put away our muskets. They now suffered us to come so near them as to take some biscuit, a penknife, and other trifles from us; but they took great care to avoid being touched. Some of them, indeed, would not accept of any thing unless it was thrown to them; and the whole party kept edging off by degrees. They seemed eager to procure every thing they saw; and had a great inclination for our hats. Mr. Cox gave one of them a silk handkerchief; and he threw him in return a fillet of skin that he wore tied round his head. The party which we saw consisted of about fourteen or fifteen men and women, but there were several more concealed among the trees: they were of a dull black, or dusky colour, with woolly heads. Most of them were of the middle size; and, though lean, were square and muscular. We observed several of them to be tatowed in a very curious manner, the skin being raised so as to form a kind of relief; besides which, their bodies appeared to be daubed with a kind of dirty red paint, or earth. They were entirely naked, except one man, who had a necklace of small shells, and some of the women, who had a kind of cloak or bag thrown over their shoulders; in which, I suppose, they carry their children, and what few moveables they possess. Upon the whole, they seemed to us to be a timorous, harmless race of people, and afford a fine picture of human nature in its most rude and uncultivated state. We spent

spent some time in endeavouring to inspire these poor people with confidence ; but though they appeared to be very merry, laughing and mimicking our actions, and frequently repeating the words Warra, Warra, Wai, they kept retiring very fast ; and as we imagined they beckoned us to follow them, we attempted it for a little while, but soon lost them among the trees.'

Mr. Mortimer observes, that Otaheite, and most of the island of the islands in the South Sea visited by him, having already been described in an able and ample manner by captain Cook, and the gentlemen who accompanied him in his different expeditions, he shall therefore content himself with relating only the occurrences during their stay. The account of the *heiva*, or drama of the Otaheitans, contains incidents which form a curious addition to former relations of this singular people. So fond they are of ridicule, that if they saw any action aboard the ship which appeared to them ludicrous or absurd, they never failed to take notice of it on the stage, with considerable embellishments. Otoo, the present king of Otaheite, is more remarkable for size than for dignity. His subjects pay him little respect, and seemed under no kind of restraint in his presence ; ' every dirty fellow entering freely into conversation with him. Indeed, were it not for the distinction of being fed, and that the women sometimes uncover their shoulders in his presence, it would be difficult to tell him from any of his people.' But a curious work might be written upon the very different meanings of the word *king* in distinct ages and societies.

The following rude intelligence concerning the mutineers in the *Bounty* deserves notice.

' We had still Otoo for our guest on the 20th ; in the afternoon of which I took a walk on shore, and purchased a club from one of the natives that he informed me had been brought from a place he called Tootate by one Titreano, who he said was captain Bligh's chief officer, and that he returned to Otaheite in the *Bounty* about two months after she had first sailed without captain Bligh, who was left at Tootate : he told me also, that captain Bligh had had an engagement with the men of Tootate, in which one of his people was killed with such a club as I had bought of him, and several of the natives were shot by our guns. This story was corroborated by Otoo and several chiefs ; who further informed us, that captain Titreano had sailed but fifteen days before our arrival, and had carried several Otaheitean families with him to Tootate. Where Tootate could be, or who they meant by Titreano, we could not then conjecture ; but I have now no doubt that the principal part of this strange relation is true : the club I purchased, with some others ; but a beautiful high-polished spear, in the possession

session of Poneow, he could not be induced to part with ; all which they told us were brought from Tootate in the Bounty, and are different from those of Otaheite and the adjacent Isles, but are very similar to the weapons of the Friendly Islands.'

During their stay at Otaheite, Mr. Mortimer visited the island of Emio, or Morie; and he gives some good anecdotes concerning the manners of the inhabitants. The next object is the Sandwich Islands, and particularly Owhyhee, where captain Cook was killed. A party went on shore one day to the village of Kowrowa, where that celebrated navigator met with an undeserved fate; and the identical spot where he fell was shewn. A tree still remains near the place, perforated with a cannon-ball which was fired from one of the ships during the scuffle, and serves as a memento of that unhappy affair. Mr. Mortimer observes, that the manners of the Sandwich Islands differ much from those of Otaheite: for, in the former the people live in towns or villages, and the chiefs have great authority. The canoes of the Sandwich Islands are also superior; but the natives are neither so comely nor so well-clad as the Otaheitans. At the Sandwich Islands they met with several pewter medals, left there by the *Columbia* and *Washington*, two vessels belonging to the American States, and a plate and description of them are given: they have only the vessels, with inscriptions, mentioning their destination, and the names of the proprietors and commander. The idea is good, and worthy of the imitation of future navigators who may be sent on voyages of discovery.

They next proceed northward to the Fox Islands and Oonakka.

'And here I must observe, that these poor people seem to be completely subdued by, and are in a state of the most abject dependence upon, the Russians, who oblige the men to set and look after their fox-traps, to fish and hunt for them, &c. and the women make their boats. The Russians, beside, strip them of all their most valuable furs; so that it is in vain for a stranger to think of procuring any, while they remain at the Fox Islands. To keep themselves in the good graces of the natives, and stimulate them to work, the Russians occasionally distribute among them a few copper and pewter rings, glass-beads, &c.; and we saw them reward a man with a pinch of snuff who had been out fishing for them the greatest part of a cold bleak night; and he appeared perfectly satisfied.'

Tinian is the next object, which they found inferior in reality to the enchanting description given in Anson's Voyage; and the delightful lawns are not to be found. But in half a century

century the progress of vegetation in a neglected island may occasion a great difference. The singular ranges of columns to be seen in Tinian attract our navigator's attention, and a measurement is given. A view might have proved more interesting to the reader than the club and American medal. They hence pass by Tobacofima to Macao; and the garden of Mr. Fitzhugh, one of the English East-India Company's supercargoes at Canton, is mentioned: "In the centre of the garden stands a curious pierced rock, in the cavity of which, it is said, Camoens composed the *Lusiad*." A piece of information which we consider as very dubious.

The voyage ends at Canton on the 10th of January, 1790, having only occupied ten months and five days.

Orlando Furioso, of Ludovico Ariosto; with an Explanation of equivocal Words and poetical Figures, and an Elucidation of all the Passages concerning History or Fable. By Agostino Ifola, Teacher of the Italian Language in the University of Cambridge. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. sewed. Deighton. 1790.

THIS is a very neat and accurate edition of the original text of the Orlando, which has been aptly enough styled a labyrinth of poetry. It is dedicated to R. Heron, esq. and an advertisement to the reader follows, in which the editor mentions, that he has used the most celebrated editions, and particularly that printed at Venice, 1584, by Francesco Franceschi, with the annotations of Givolamo Ruscalli. And he adds, that to the end of each volume he has annexed a table of its contents, so that the reader may easily find in what page every subject is continued which he may chuse to read, as the margin would not have allowed the editor to quote, in marginal notes, the life and achievements of the warriors, and the continuation of those of other adventurers, introduced into the poem.

As an impartial specimen of the notes, we shall select the first which occur.

‘ a A Furo, furono.

‘ b D’Agramante lor Re, &c. Agramant, king of Africa, attacked Charlemain, son of Pepin of France, with a powerful army, to revenge the death of his son Troyano.

‘ c Limare, consumare, sminuire.

‘ d Generosa, &c. Hippolito, son of Hercules, duke of Ferrara,’ &c.

In vol. I. p. 64, we find the following note:

‘ Colubri,

‘Colubri, serpents which the house of Visconti displayed upon their banners, being the arms of that family.’

The arms of the Visconti were a snake swallowing a child, as they appear on many coins and monuments of Milan. Ariosto only uses the plural poetically. The next note is alike exceptionable for vagueness. The Insubres were indeed a people of Cisalpine Gaul; but the reader cannot understand the passage without knowing that they held the Milanese.

In p. 289, vol. I. half an useful note is omitted to make room for a quotation from a comedy by the author of the *Heirefs*, in imitation of a passage of Ariosto.

‘Natura il fece, e poi ruppe la stampa,’

Imitated before by many. The part of the note omitted should stand thus:

‘Roscia, Rofs—Ottonlei, Huntley—Trasfordia, Crawford—Albania, Albany.’

Concerning *Treviganti*, vol. I. p. 351, the editor should have consulted Dr. Percy's *Reliques*.

The note, vol. II. p. 13, is also exceptionable: for the dexterity of the Spaniards did not consist in throwing canes to a great distance, but in throwing them up when the horse was at full speed, and catching them before they fell.

The intelligence concerning Constantine and the Pope in the note, vol. II. p. 171, is fabulous. *Sienna*, vol. II. p. 227, should be *Syene*. Ludovico Sforza is, by Latin writers, his contemporaries, called *Maurus*, not *Morus*, and seems to derive his name from the darkness of his complexion, as resembling a Moor, and not from its livid redness, as resembling a mulberry. In vol. III. p. 414, Mr. Isola tells us in a note, that ‘Constantinus made a present of the city of Rome to pope Silvester;’ while Ariosto, in his text, ridicules the idea. This is the reverse of illustrating an author.

In vol. IV. p. 185, we find this note: ‘Este Signori qui. Charlemain, in his diploma for creating lords and sovereigns, made use of this Latin expression, *Este hic Domini*; from which origin the most ancient title of the illustrious family of Este is derived.’ This is indeed conformable to the text, but a more ridiculous idea could hardly be advanced. No such phrase is used in Charlemagne's charters; and if it were there might from the same source be a hundred families of Este. We must refer the editor to his countryman Muratori's account of the family of Este for its real origin.

Upon the whole, we cannot congratulate the editor as a *literato*; for we cannot discover a single spark of learning in his notes.

notes. But the edition is nevertheless the most useful for an English reader of any hitherto published. The best plan of commenting upon any writer, is to give short notes on the difficult passages; and it is surprizing, that none of the classics have yet been published in this way. But the German mode still prevails of making notes to clear a common-place book, and not to illustrate the difficult parts of an author ONLY, which, on the contrary, are generally passed over by German editors.

A Treatise on the Culture of the Vine, exhibiting new and advantageous Methods of propagating, cultivating, and training that Plant, so as to render it abundantly fruitful. Together with new Hints on the Formation of Vineyards in England. By W. Speechly, Gardener to the Duke of Portland. 4to. 7s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1790.

THAT wine may be made in England, and that what the older authors have called vineyards were not, as some antiquaries contend, orchards, containing apple and pear-trees, we are little disposed to controvert. The only object to be considered is, whether grapes are not a kind of fruit subject to more accidents from cold than the others which we have mentioned; and whether, while it is necessary to hold out encouragement to the importers of corn, they may not fill those grounds which might be otherwise ploughed. The advocates for forming vineyards in England contend, with great plausibility, that the warmth of this climate, in chosen situations, is sufficient in almost every year to ripen grapes; that in such situations they are not liable to more accidents than apples, and that the grounds adapted for vineyards are unfit for corn, as the coarse stony ground is the most proper for the vine. These arguments are, however, more plausible than true. The warmth is indeed sufficient in the south of this island; and stony grounds, unfit for corn, are not uncommon there; but these grounds occur in the more elevated parts, where the climate is very severe, and frosts are not unfrequent at the end of May; besides, that every part of this island is subject to cold in spring, which often checks or destroys the most promising prospect of fruit. The fault of the climate is not in the early cold, but in the early warmth, which brings forward the blossom, while the colds of spring blight the fruit. We have examined many parts of the island with a view to this subject; but can scarcely find any spots so well adapted to the production of grapes for wine, as to preclude artificial shelter.

Though this application of the fruit of the vine should be inadmissible in this climate, we mean not to bring this as an objection to Mr. Speechly's Treatise. The vine in the green
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and hot-houses of England produces a grape of high flavour, and even in some limited sheltered spots, it will be almost equally successful. We have no doubt in adding, that the work before us will contribute to improve the fruit, by the very judicious management which it recommends of the tree. The first object of enquiry, which is confined to the preface, relates to the introduction of the vine into pine-stoves. Our author admits of it, and his reasons are very convincing; added to our own experience of excellent grapes having been produced for a series of years in a pine-stove, without injuring the pines. The vines must, however, be kept carefully free of insects, pruned with judgment, and not suffered to run too much in leaf.

Mr. Speechly first gives the botanical characters of the vine, and then describes fifty variety of grapes which are cultivated at Welbeck. This part we cannot transcribe or analyse, but our readers may probably thank us for selecting our author's method of preserving grapes.

‘ I have constantly kept grapes a long time by the following method : before the autumnal frosts have killed the vine leaves, let the bunch with the shoot be carefully cut off the vine. Then put the lower end of the shoot into a bottle filled with water ; hang up the bottle with the shoot and bunch in a warm room. A green-house is a very proper place.

‘ Only two or three joints of the shoot above the bunch should be left, but a sufficient length below, to reach the bottom of a quart bottle, will be required.

‘ The bottle should be filled with fresh water every twelve or fourteen days ; and at the same time a thin shaving should be cut off the bottom of the shoot, whereby the pores will be made to imbibe the water with greater facility.

‘ Grapes produced in pine-stoves require to be cut at the pruning season, viz. in December.

‘ By this method I have often kept grapes fresh and good till the middle of February.’

Our author next treats of the management of the ground in which the vine is planted. It should be dry, and by no means a wet clayey bottom. The ground in which the vine grows with most luxuriance, unassisted, is a rich sandy loam, mixed with the remains of decomposed slate. Rich oily substances of every kind, particularly of an animal nature, as well as the scrapings of roads, are useful for vines, without any suspicion of magnetic virtue in the latter. The real effects of exposure to the air are accounted for easily without its influence. The scrapings of hard roads are undoubtedly preferable, and those

in a lime-stone country are still better. The following facts, though not particularly relating to vines, are very valuable.

‘ In some kinds of moory or fenny soils, it formerly was found difficult to get sets of either the willow or white thorn to strike root, though it was observed, that the few plants of both, that chanced to take, generally grew remarkably luxuriant afterwards, and were very durable.

‘ It is probable, that such soils greatly abound either with a sulphurous or an unctuous quality, so as to overpower the plants when newly set,

‘ The scrapings of roads, and the dirt of streets, are found to be effected in remedying this complaint.

‘ In some parts of the isle of Ely, and the adjacent low and moist country, it is now become a general practice to carry the road-earth many miles for this purpose. At the time of planting, a few handfuls of this substance are put round each set, and a quantity just sufficient to keep the natural soil from touching the bark of the plant, is found to be quite adequate to the purpose. By this mode of practice, numbers of willow trees are raised with the greatest certainty, and fine white thorn hedgerows now form and furnish the boundaries of those inclosures, which, formerly, were only separated by ditches, to the great benefit, as well as ornament, of the country.’

Vines are propagated by seed, layers, and cuttings. Mr. Speechly seems to have raised some new and agreeable varieties from seed, following the Linnæan doctrine of joining the two branches, which, it is intended, shall mix during the period of bloom. All the five sorts of Frontinac, particularly the black, blue, and red, are useful in adding a flavour to the other kinds. The blue is, however, a close growing grape, which is, for many reasons, less eligible, and therefore should be joined with the loose growing kinds. The white muscat of Alexandria is a loose growing grape; the berries large, and well flavoured. The sweet water has less flavour, but it is thin-skinned, with large berries. These considerations will suggest suitable unions. The Syrian vine produces the largest bunches: Strabo mentions a bunch a yard long; Moses (*Numbers* xiii. 23.) a cluster that was borne on a staff between two; Huet saw grapes, in the Archipelago, of forty pounds weight each bunch. The largest of this kind produced, under Mr. Speechly's direction at Welbeck, was two feet long, and weighed nineteen pounds; but this a singular phenomenon in England. Our author describes the management for raising vines from seed, cuttings, and layers. He is perfectly correct in saying, that the smaller the cutting, the surer the success; and the rule is general in every plant. It is not
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so much, we apprehend, from its having less of the parent wood, but from the wood being softer, and better adapted to send out shoots. Those plants that have soft wood succeed well enough from larger cuttings; though, in large cuttings, there is always danger of a part dying, from the want of sufficient nourishment. The method of propagating vines from a single eye, with about two inches and a half of the parent wood, we consider, for this reason, as a great improvement, and we shall transcribe our author's judicious directions for the choice of shoots.

‘ The first care should be to make choice of proper and well-ripened wood to form the cuttings, as it is absurd to imagine that good plants can ever be produced from wood imperfectly ripened: indeed the case here is exactly similar, and may be considered in the same light, as between plants raised from well-perfected seed, and plants growing from seed not well matured.

‘ Some persons are of opinion, that cuttings taken from the lower part of the vine are preferable to those that grow higher and and at a distance from the root. But, for my part, I confess I could never find any difference, so as to induce me to give the preference to either, provided the wood was equally well ripened. But it generally happens that the best wood is produced at the most distant parts from the root, and especially in vines trained against rafters in the hot-house, where there is generally a very distinguishable difference between the top and the lower parts of the plants, in respect to goodness.

‘ The new shoots constantly appear first at the most distant parts, and are generally more strong and vigorous, in proportion to their distance from the roots. I mention this particular, because forward shoots from vines, forced early, are the most eligible for the intended purpose. Early and forward shoots, having a longer summer than those afterwards produced, will, of course, be better ripened and matured.

‘ Vines against common walls, or in vineries, that are not forced early, will sometimes produce remarkably strong wood, and such shoots, on account of their uncommon size, are by unskilful persons, frequently chosen for cuttings.

‘ The extraordinary size of the shoot I consider as one of the least requisites necessary to form a good cutting. Indeed exceeding strong shoots generally abound too much with pith to claim a preference. I wish to observe too, that much depends on the nature and form of the eye, or bud, as well as the wood, and that better buds are generally produced from shoots of a moderate size, than from exceeding strong ones,

‘ The particulars necessary to form a good cutting are principally these: 1, The eye, or bud, should be large, prominent,

and bold: 2. The shoots should be moderately strong, round, and short-jointed; 3. The texture of the wood should be close, solid, and compact; but the best criterion of its maturity is, its solidity, and having very little pith.'

The management of the shoots is a subject too extensive, and less new. It is undoubtedly proper to check the shoot, when too luxuriant. Indeed, the most common error of gardeners is forcing too much, which makes the plant larger, but it is weak and trailing. As soon as the root has struck, it should be used to the open air, and acquire vigour and hardiness by exposure to cold. When the shoot, after this exposure, begins to be trained in the hot-house, its exertions are astonishing. We find it impossible to pursue our author in the judicious directions for training the vines. In general, it deserves our warmest approbation; and we ought equally to praise Mr. Speechly's judgment and his candour. He seems to have concealed nothing which his long experience has taught him.

The second book is on the construction of vineries, buildings for the sole purpose of ripening grapes.

' Fluid walls of about twelve or fourteen feet high, in a direction from East to West, with a roof and glass lights covering a border of about ten feet wide on the South side of the wall, compose a proper receptacle for the production of grapes, or a vinery.

' It is usual to have upright glasses, of about two and a half or three feet high in front, to support the roof; and this is very proper when vines are intended to be forced at an early season, because it admits the sun and light to the border, which is generally occupied with various kinds of low-growing vegetables; but where grapes are not wanted at an early season, a considerable expence may be saved, as, in that case, a low wall in front will answer equally as well. The shade of this wall would be very injurious to the border, if the vines were to be forced early in the spring; but the meridian altitude of the sun, in the beginning of summer, renders it no way prejudicial at that season.

' Supposing a fluid wall, twelve feet high, the breadth of the border ten feet; and the height of the upright glass frame, or wall, in front, three feet, the roof will then form an angle of about forty-three degrees. Experience shews this to be a proper pitch for vines forced *after* the vernal equinox. I mention this circumstance, because some persons, who give designs for buildings of this kind, lay so great a stress on this point, as to pronounce a vinery, or peach-house, incapable of answering the intended purpose, should the pitch of the roof happen only to vary

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a degree or two from their favourite angle. Indeed, if we suppose the sun's meridian altitude always the same, such an objection would rest on a solid foundation; but we know that it not only varies daily, but many degrees in a short space of time*; so that if the pitch of the roof depended on so nice a point, what might be deemed right in the early part of the spring, would certainly be wrong later in the summer.

'In Holland, it is customary to begin to force vines in November, in order to have ripe grapes early in the spring. In these frames, used for winter forcing, it is found necessary, that the glass frames should be in an almost perpendicular direction. The Dutch have also a method of forcing vines planted in the open ground, the shoots of which are trained in an horizontal position, about eighteen inches from the ground. Over the vines, which are forced in the summer, they put frames nearly as flat as those commonly made use of for melons.'

We consider this direction as, in general, proper, if early grapes are the object of pursuit. But we have never found these equal in flavour to the later ones; and forcing early seems always to injure them in this respect. In Holland, there is additional reason for forcing early, which our author does not advert to; the dampness of the winter air. Damp with cold is the most injurious to plants in the conservatory, or the green-house; and the first appearance of moisture should rather give the gardener the hint to light his fires, than extreme cold. We prefer a larger angle for the roof, as containing more air, and not forcing so early. The directions for raising plants, to fill the vinery, are highly useful and just. The chapter on pruning is equally valuable, but incapable of abridgment. In pruning the young shoots, the use of the knife is improper, as it leaves a stain: they should be pinched off; and, in this way, bleeding is often prevented. When bleeding occurs, it is with difficulty stopped; and the best method, in our author's opinion, is covering the wounded part with a wet bladder closely tied, spread over with tar or pitch.

In winter the vines should be kept dry; and in the spring the waterings should be gentle. It is only when the berries begin to swell, that watering should be so much as to keep the border in a constantly moist state. Warm vapour of about 70 or 75 degrees is very salutary to the vine, which absorbs much

* At London, latitude 51. 30. N. in the summer solstice, (June 22) the meridian altitude, or sun's place above the horizon at noon-day is $63\frac{1}{2}$ degrees.— But at the winter solstice, (December 22) it is only $16\frac{1}{2}$ degrees above the horizon.'

moisture from its leaves. The drainage of dunghills, poured on the roots towards winter, in moderate quantities, is useful as a watering and as a manure. The method of grafting is next described; but Mr. Speechly does not think that grafting the vine on a cherry stock, in the manner recommended in an anonymous publication, would succeed.

Insects are very destructive to vines and grapes. Fumigations should be practised before the vine comes into bloom; and, after that, kidney beans may be planted, which will attract the thrips, and the insects and the beans may be removed together. The acari, the worst enemy of vines, may be destroyed, our author tells us, in the following way: to one pound of flour of sulphur add two ounces of common Scotch snuff; mix them; dip a painter's brush in the powder, and draw it lightly along the under pagina of each leaf. Though tedious, if as successful as Mr. Speechly has found it, every gardener will be happy in being informed of it. The various facts collected of the size, the longevity, and the prolific productions of the vine, are highly curious. Even in this climate it has attained the age of near two hundred years; and from the fruit of one vine, a gardener has made in some fruitful years one hundred pounds annually. The durability of the vine-wood is a circumstance also of great importance, and various facts of this kind are adduced from ancient authors of credit.

The last subject is vineyards; and the vinous latitude our author thinks is, from the 25th to the 51st degree. Allowance must, however, be made for different climates in the same parallel; but we think it doubtful whether it is a general fact, that the seasons in Europe were much colder formerly than at present. The particular observations, as they are local, may be influenced by various circumstances. Our author describes the proper situation for a vineyard in this country; and if it should ever be attempted, these remarks would be found highly valuable. The kind of grape preferred should undoubtedly be those of Germany, not of France. The spots, which our author mentions as proper for vineyards in the south of England, are some of its most fertile and productive lands. But since we consider the attempt as improper, we need not enlarge on the methods and management proposed.

We cannot, in our conclusion, add to the commendations we have had occasion to bestow on the substance of this work. We may, however, observe, that its form is an elegant one, and that it is illustrated by many useful plates.

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Annales de Chymie. Vol. III. (Continued from Vol. LXIX. p. 695.)

THESE volumes multiply in our hands, and are in many views so interesting, that we hope in future to insert an account of them as soon as they reach us, if the publication is continued, and political enquiries do not employ that attention which our neighbours have usually paid to science. These have already greatly influenced the conductors of different foreign Journals, and rendered their contents of less general importance.

The first article of the third volume is an abridged Analysis of the abbé Haüy's Theory of the Structure of Crystals: it is in reality an able review of the first part of the theory, and of the abbé's different memoirs on the subject; and we should have given a full account of it, if the minuteness of the examination and details, not generally interesting, had not deterred us. The great variety of forms which minerals assume, the similarity of different substances, and the apparent diversity of figure, when the nature of the mineral is the same, seem at first sight to be insurmountable obstacles. Yet, when a more careful and particular enquiry investigates the forms, which are in some measure concealed under a crust, these forms appear to be connected, and we perceive simple and uniform rules, which seem to influence the different modifications. The theory that arises from this examination, furnishes sensible and constant characters to distinguish at least the species. A very slight acquaintance with minerals will show, that a broken side will sometimes have a smooth and polished surface, so as to leave little doubt that these surfaces formed the natural joints of the laminae which composed the mineral: it is by following these joints, and breaking the minerals in different ways, to examine their direction, that the author has discovered his theory. Thus he found that all the crystals which belonged to the same class, were divisible by mechanical means into pieces, whose polished surfaces had the same direction, and if broken in any other direction, the fracture was irregular, without being able to discover any joint. By this means, bodies of the same nature might be reduced to a solid of the same form, whose polished sides seem to show that it was the nucleus of the mass. This body is styled the primitive form, and the varieties which arise from accretion, are secondary forms. The primitive ones are few, but the secondary very numerous; the calcareous spar alone admitting of 1019 different (secondary) forms.

The essay on the salt, drawn from the juice of cherries, is by M. Hialm, and taken from the Swedish Transactions. The salt crystallised spontaneously, in what we should call cherry-wine; for the juice had undergone two fermentations with the addition of raisins and sugar. It contained calcareous earth, but the acid seems of a peculiar nature, resembling in some respects the sebaccic,

tic, in others the formic and the lactic, but essentially differing from all. Our author justly observes, that no prejudice should prevent multiplying the acids, for if all the mineral acids were reduced to one, the three kinds, as they now occur, would still have their distinct and appropriated uses in the arts. This is undoubtedly true, and the errors arising from the rage of simplicity have greatly impeded the progress of many sciences depending on chemistry, particularly pharmacy. The acid, in this imperfect analysis, seems pretty certainly a disguised oxalic acid.

M. Chaptal communicated to the Royal Academy, 'Observations on the Method of making Alum, by the direct combination of its constituent principles.' This memoir is highly spoken of in the volume before us, by M. M. Berthollet and de Dietrich; but it can only be of importance where the alum is not found in the earth already formed, in part, if not completely. The most interesting part of the memoir, of which an abstract is given, we think to be the coating of the vessels, as lead would be too dear: it consists of an equal part of pitch, turpentine, and wax, melted together, till all the volatile oil has escaped. It is applied boiling hot.

An extract from M. Ingenhouz' Experiments on Vegetables follows; particularly respecting their property of meliorating the air by day, and corrupting it by night. But of this subject we have often treated.

M. Berthollet has inserted a very long and a very able reply to Dr. Priestley's Experiments on the Composition of Water, and on the article of Nitrous Acid in Mr. Keir's Dictionary of Chemistry. In a very careful and accurate enquiry, he endeavours to show that Dr. Priestley's calculations are not exact, and his experiments not conclusive. He has, however, in more than one place, left himself open to a reply, which Dr. Priestley's sagacity wants no assistant to point out. The extent only of these minute and particular discussions prevent us from giving an account of this paper. On the whole, the question is still undecided; but since we had last an opportunity of noticing it, new arguments and experiments have appeared, which contribute to support the system of the French academicians.

An extract from the Observations of M. M. Adolph, Modeer, and Klaproth, on the sulphurated Molybdena (molybdanum membranaceum), taken from the ninth volume of the Transactions of the Society of Curious Naturalists at Berlin, follows; but these are of no great importance, and tend chiefly to show that the metallic acid is in greater proportion than has formerly been supposed.

M. de Fourcroy's Observations on a singular Change produced on the Liver by Putrefaction, is of more importance. The late M. Pouletier had exposed to the open air a piece of human liver:

it putrified, and was in part devoured by insects. In about six or seven years it hardened, and became brown and friable, but for three or four years had appeared unaltered. It had been exposed to the air full ten years. On examining this substance, it was far from having become a meer earth; it evidently contained a concrescible oil, with a portion of soap, seemingly formed by an ammoniacal salt. The concrete oil resembled in all its properties spermaceti. We shall presently observe, that this substance seems to be the effect of the spontaneous decomposition of animal matters, and in certain cases, collects in the living body, and forms injurious concretions.

For this purpose, we must step on to the fifth volume of these Annals, where M. Fourcroy gives an account of the observations made on the bodies dug up from the church yard 'of the Innocents.' He pursues these remarks with a disgusting minuteness, wholly unfit for a popular work: it is enough to observe, that the skin and cellular substance, after many years, is wholly changed into this substance, which resembles the spermaceti. The muscular fibres undergo a similar change, and produce a similar concrete oil: the parenchymatous parts resist decomposition longer, and the oil is less pure; but the purest of all is from the brain and marrow. It is evidently not the animal oil that undergoes this change, but the animal mucilage. The bones do not assume this appearance, though it is found in their cavities from the marrow.

Nearly connected with this subject, is a memoir by M. Fourcroy on Biliary Calculi. It was known by recent experiments, that the common calculi, formed by concentric layers, seemingly from inspissated bile, which we shall call laminated calculi, contained a crystalline matter in a small proportion, different in different concretions, and peculiar to the human, soluble in alcohol by means of heat. There is, however, another kind of calculus without the laminæ, which we may style the crystalline. It appears foliated, not unlike the little leaves of talc, and is uniformly of this texture; but while the laminated calculi are often numerous, the crystalline is generally alone, and sometimes of a large size. It appears that the whole of this latter, and the crystalline portion of the laminated calculus, is entirely formed of the concrete animal oil, which we have said resembles spermaceti. It seems probable, therefore, that the liver is designed to evacuate the superabundant portion of this oily matter; and that when in too large a quantity, it stagnates and forms these concretions. We may, also add, from the last volume of the Turin Transactions, that M. Fontana found in a pound of the gall of an ox, six drachms sixty-three grains of an *animal-resinous-oil*, which comes very near to the description of M. Fourcroy. He discovered also magnesia combined with the phosphoric acid.

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To finish this subject, we must step on again to the fifth volume, to remark, that M. Gren has analysed a crystalline calculus, which he tells us contains eighty-five parts of wax and fifteen of lymph. He differs, however, from M. Fourcroy, in finding the wax not soluble in alcohol, though heated.

We shall now proceed regularly with the third volume of the *Annales*, and the memoir which follows M. Fourcroy's Analysis of the Putrified Liver, which led us so far astray, is M. Monge's Essay on some phenomena of Vision. It relates to the appearance of objects through a coloured medium, such as tinged glass; but our author's explanations are by no means satisfactory, though very ingenious. He is not fully aware of the effects of the combinations of colours, or the changes produced by the inflection of a small bundle of rays passing through a coloured aperture.

M. Seguin's Observations on the Caloric (the matter of heat) and its different Effects, are very ingenious. They comprehend a general outline of the whole doctrine in its most improved state, with Reflections on the Theory of M. M. Black, Crawford, Lavoisier, and De la Place, on animal heat. The first part contains the different facts with remarks. The second, which occurs in fifth volume of the *Annals*, relates to the theory. In this second part, M. Seguin first considers the different experiments instituted with a design to investigate the capacities of solids, fluids, and gasses. He examines the experiments of Dr. Crawford particularly, and points out some sources of a slight inaccuracy. On that part of Dr. Crawford's work where he endeavours to prove that the capacity of bodies is greater after their oxygenation, our author tells us, that his experiments are of less importance than they would have been, if the degree of oxydation had been carefully pointed out; and that moistening bodies with the nitric acid, and exposing them to a red heat, oxyegenates them more, instead of depriving them of vital air. The only conclusions then that we can draw, in his opinion, from these experiments is, that the capacity of certain combustible bodies is respectively less than that of their calces, calcined to a certain degree; 2. Beyond this degree their capacity diminishes by farther oxydation*. In general, our author thinks that Dr. Crawford's facts are too few to warrant general conclusions.

The real zero, in other words, that point at which the thermometer would stand if the body were wholly deprived of heat, we have considered as a chemical problem, not unlike the squaring the circle, or the discovery of the longitude: it can only be solved by approximation. M. Seguin, in these essays, makes a very

* We use the words *oxydation* and *calcination* as synonymous, though in a strict sense, the latter term is peculiar to metals, and the changes induced on them by heat or acids.

judicious distinction between the heat interspersed between the molecules, and that chemically combined with the body ; and examining the different experiments, we perceive that the zero, as fixed by different philosophers, varies from -3241 to -600 . Yet, as our author remarks, in some of these instances, the combined heat is disengaged, and the heat simply united to bodies, independent of chemical union, would not, if wholly taken away, sink the thermometer more than 600 degrees below the thermometrical zero. The other heat varies undoubtedly in every different body, and its quantity has not yet been even remotely ascertained. As this chemical combination of the caloric with the molecules is, in our author's opinion, ascertained ; as the capacities are not always permanent, though the state of the body remain unchanged ; and as the proportion between the absolute heat and the capacities is not fixed, or at least since these three propositions do not exist at the same time, M. Seguin thinks, that Dr. Crawford's theory is overturned. We do not, however, perceive that in every instance our author has demonstrated either to be absolutely false, but that each proposition must be taken with some reserve and a few restrictions. In general, Dr. Crawford's results are exact, and M. Seguin fully agrees with this able chemist in the theory of animal heat, which will not, we suspect, be soon overthrown.

Our readers may recollect, that in one of our former volumes, we mentioned a memoir of M. Belinghier, in opposition to Mr. Crawford's system ; and in the volume before us, we perceive that M. Hassenfratz has inserted some remarks in favour of our countryman. He admits a little inaccuracy in the Dr's. experiments, but does ample justice to his industry and his ingenuity. The mistakes which M. Belinghier points out, are, M. Hassenfratz observes, those of his own formation, particularly when he supposes the vapour from the lungs to have been formed in a liquid state.

M. Fourcroy's Observations on the Existence of an Albuminous Matter in Vegetables, occurs also in the third volume of the *Annals*, and deserves great attention, particularly from the admirers of the system lately published by Dr. Fordyce. Our author discovered this albuminous part, by defecating the juice of cresses by means of heat ; and when purified, it has, he finds, all the properties of animal mucilage. It is easily and quickly dissolved by alkalis, hardened by boiling water, imparts a green colour to vegetable tinctures, and in distillation affords a fetid oil and an ammoniacal salt. Besides the cruciferous plants, M. Fourcroy has found this albumen in wheat and several other vegetable substances ; but it appears chiefly in the younger branches and younger plants, while the more solid, and particularly the acid plants, or
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the acid productions of plants, furnish no portion of it. They afford rather a jelly than a mucilage, and our author suggests a very probable idea, that these two substances differ only by the former containing acid. Animal jelly has a strong tendency to acidity, and requires only a small proportion of vital air to become acid.

The extracts from M. Ingenhouz' third volume, relate to the Animal Nature of the green Matter, which we have had occasion to notice. Another, and a different subject of some curiosity, is the result of Experiments on the Purity of the Atmosphere for one year; but these experiments are not to be depended on, from a number of different circumstances which influence the result. The most impure state of the air seems to be in May, June, and July; the rest of the year it appears to be in a better condition. In the third memoir, he endeavours to show that the air which comes from the lungs is less vitiated in winter than in summer, in the proportion of 4 to 5. By shaking vital and atmospheric air in spring water, they appeared considerably injured, but the state of inflammable and atmospheric air injured by plants kept in it, through the night, was amended. In the fifth memoir, our author examines the nature of the air in water. The air in the water in which plants have lived, is more oxygenated than the air of the atmosphere; almost all these waters contain some fixed air, except rain-water. M. Ingenhouz thinks that electricity has no influence on vegetation. In the seventh memoir he shews, that the best method of discovering the proportion of vital air in a mixture of airs, is by adding nitrous air. Our author has not been able to discover the electrical sparks spontaneously issuing from plants, and seems to doubt the reality of the appearance. Many different memoirs, whose titles are only mentioned, follow. The Letter of Dr. Franklin on Smoaky Chimneys has already appeared in the Philosophical Transactions of Philadelphia.

The last part of the third volume consists of extracts taken from Crell's Chemical Annals. We shall select a few of the most important facts. M. Bindheim of Moscow has taught us how to procure the volatile oils of plants in a colourless state, or at least much less coloured than usual, by distilling the leaves fresh when the plant is in flower. It was before known, that oils discoloured by keeping, might be rectified by re-distillation. Distilling the peppermint with charcoal rendered it of a more deep colour than with water. The residuum had a strong aromatic smell very analogous to that of camphor.

M. Herman has found a green cat's-eyed feld spar in the mountains of granite in Ufimski; and near Catherinesburgh, four feet below the surface, above the rich gold mines, an elephant's

tooth almost wholly decomposed. The oxygenated marine acid is, as we have remarked, used with great success in bleaching; but fails in extracting the metallic colours: if, however, from an alkaline caustic ley, neutralised with the oxygenated muriatic acid, the stuffs are put into a dilute solution of sulphuric acid, every kind of colouring particle is destroyed.

The seed of the red trefoil we have mentioned as capable of being used as a dye, and with different preparations of sulphuric acid, potash, and tin, produces various shades of yellow: with bases (mordants) of copper, it affords green, while the mucilage of the seed gives a body to the colour. The red colour of the abortive flowers in the centre of the carrot, gives, in different management, a rose-colour, a black, and a green.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

DIVINITY, RELIGIOUS, &c.

A Discourse on occasion of the Death of Dr. Price; delivered at Hackney, on Sunday, May 1, 1791. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

DR. Priestley, on this occasion, has chosen his text from Luke xx. 38. 'He is not a God of the dead, but of the living; for all live unto him.' He explains it properly and consistently, by observing that, as at the resurrection all shall live again, God, who is the God of all, who leaves no one in the silent grave neglected and forgotten, may be truly said to be the God not of the dead but of the living. This Sermon, however, is rather an account of the labours and the character of Dr. Price, with a suitable application for the improvement of the preacher's hearers and readers, drawn from the virtues and the talents of the subject of his discourse. Many things, it may be expected, cannot command our assent or our commendation; but we should be wanting to the cause of virtue and of piety, if we could not cheerfully praise Dr. Price's benevolence and charity; his unaffected virtue, and his true, his fervent piety. To these virtues party cannot blind our eyes; to such qualities we cannot shut our hearts: we must regret that such examples are so few, and lament when they are no more. In other respects we cannot change our opinions; but we have already referred a fuller discussion of the subject to a fitter opportunity: we shall then perhaps find Dr. Price occasionally mistaken, though we shall always believe him sincere.

An Address, delivered at the Interment of the late Rev. Dr. Richard Price, on the 26th of April, 1791. By Andrew Kippis, D. D. F. R. S. and S. A. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

This heartfelt eulogium is highly honourable to the author, as
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it displays a warm steady friendship, an affectionate regard, and a zealous wish of promoting the future fame of the man he loved and honoured.—In our situation, it is not easy to speak. We never distrusted Dr. Price's good intentions, his zeal for his country, or his more universal regard for the happiness of mankind. But his views were, we think, misapplied, and his efforts misdirected. We can lament with Dr. Kippis the loss of a virtuous man, an exemplary minister, and an useful friend. At this time we can go no farther; nor would we ever wish to carry opposition beyond the grave. His works, and a more minute detail of his life, may again recal us to this subject, and we shall certainly not avoid discussions which we would not provoke.

A Sermon on Faith and Election, preached before the University of Cambridge, Dec. 5, 1790, By Thomas Hayter, A. M. 8vo. 6d. Payne. 1791.

This very concise Sermon is so truly excellent, and so full of just and accurate discrimination, that is not easy to give a satisfactory account of it in a few words: it is itself the outline of a very extensive argument.

Mr. Hayter's text is John xvi. 12. 13. 'I have yet many things to say unto you, but ye cannot hear them now: howbeit, when he, the spirit of truth, is come, he will guide you into all truth.' Our Saviour, he remarks, never openly announced either the downfall of the Mosaic ritual, or his own pretensions to the character of the Messiah. This delicate office was left to St. Paul, who was charged to open to the Jews the whole scheme of a Messiah crucified instead of one triumphant; of a suffering victim, instead of a conquering prince. On this account, much of the reasoning designed for the conviction of the Jews is obscure, misunderstood, or misinterpreted; and in no part more so, than in the passages relating to faith and election. That the doctrine insisted on by the Calvinists, is not that of St. Paul as addressed to believing Christians, in a state of tranquility, is evident from Romans xi. 7. and Titus iii. 8.—2 Cor. xiii.—2. 13.—James xi. 10.—Romans i. 6. In the last passage, he seems earnest to prevent the consequences, which might be drawn from a misunderstanding of the former parts of that epistle. The expressions 'elect,' 'saved' 'chosen' 'justified' denote, agreeable to their tenor in the Old Testament, persons possessing a contingent prospect of salvation, held out gratuitously, but attainable only conditionally, through a compliance with moral and religious stipulations.*

* 1 Peter i. 1, 2. Titus iii. 4. 56. 1 Peter ii. 9. Titus iii. 7.

—In a more extended and less frequent sense, they mean, 'characters endowed with a *vested* title to salvation †.

A Letter from a Blacksmith to the Ministers and Elders of the Church of Scotland. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1791.

A. T. Blacksmith, the rival of M. B. Drapier, is pretty severe on the Church of Scotland, and the mode of worship adopted in it. At this time, when numerous sectarists seem eager to revive a worship consisting of the spontaneous 'Effusions of Individuals,' the editor thinks a republication of this tract proper and useful. His preface consists of cursory comments on the 'Rights of Man' 'Hints, &c.' 'An Apology for the Liturgy, &c. of the Church of England.' 'Mr. Wakefield's Address to Dr. Horsley.' and 'the Review of the Case of the Protestant Dissenters,' attributed to Dr. Horsley. He is very severe on the Dissenters and their adherents, and particularly hostile to their political claims.

'In the resolutions, petitions, and various instruments published by Protestant Dissenters, appeals are made to their political exertions with as much gravity and confidence, as if they had exclusively and repeatedly saved the country. The editor has endeavoured, for his own satisfaction, to re-collect such events from the faithful depository of history, as were most likely to inspire the lofty tone in which these men vaunted, and still vaunt of their merit. Nothing of very great or general importance, he presumed, could have been achieved by them, or any other party in the state not publicly acknowledged, or even some where recorded to their honour. His research was certainly not without abundance of patience and industry; but has, notwithstanding, been so abortive, that he has not been able to ascertain a single fact, which in any degree authenticates their allegations.'

The author of the 'Historical Memoirs of Religious Dissention,' a work which we noticed with respect, and which deserved a more particular and able reply from the Dissenters, is the great object of his attention and praise.

The Words and Doctrine of the Church Catechism, explained in a familiar Manner. By a Country Clergyman. To which is added, a short Address preparatory to Confirmation. 12mo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1790.

This is a familiar exposition of those rudiments of the Christian faith which our church has directed for the instruction of children. It requires some explanation, for it is improperly abstruse and unreasonably intricate. If a reformation in the liturgy is

† Matth. xxiv. 31. and 13. Math. xx. 13. Math. xii. 36. 37.

found necessary, the catechism should undoubtedly share the reformer's attention.

POLITICAL AND CONTROVERSIAL.

Letters to the Right Hon. Edmund Burke on Politics. By Edward Tatham, D. D. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1791.

Dr. Tatham, in manly and dignified language, reprehends the levelling innovators of this period, and compliments Mr. Burke highly on his political Reflections. Yet, perhaps, he carries the spirit of despotism, and of the hierarchy, farther than is expedient at this time, farther than just reasoning and rational enquiry would support them at any æra. The government of France undoubtedly required some reformation. It was a despotism supporting, and supported by, an aristocracy, in which the people owed the only favour they obtained to the benevolence and humanity of individuals.

The second Letter is on Civil Liberty, and commences with a short abstract of Aristotle's political Treatise. The Stagyrite is properly brought forward on this occasion by Dr. Tatham; and another anonymous author, for his vast comprehensive mind, his diligent enquiry into the state of the ancient republics, and the acuteness of his discernment, are peculiarly conspicuous in this tract, and render him a competent as well as a disinterested judge. Some rational and temperate observations on the slave-trade, and the necessity of regulating, rather than abolishing it, follow. The remarks on the conduct of the Dissenters are not equally temperate. Our author charges them with a deep-laid design, which they have been secretly practising from the age of puritanism, till the circumstances of the moment lead them at present to avow it, at least in part, with little reserve. They fomented, he observes, the American rebellion, in order to distress the state, that it might be induced to seize on the revenues of the church: they have endeavoured to destroy the connection between church and state, that they might more easily conquer each separately; and they are constantly cherishing the seeds of innovation by their pamphlets, advertisements, *Sunday's Schools*, societies, and sermons. We are not ready to approve of the whole of the author's invective. We have grounded the alteration of our opinion respecting the test-act, on the suspicions we entertained that the Dissenters wished to go farther, and add some innovations, which would be detrimental to the constitution. That this whole design is *laid*, we do not believe; but we think it prudent, at this time, to resist every attempt at change, though even in the specious guise of reformation.

Strictures

Strictures on the Letter of the Right Hon. Mr. Burke, on the Revolution in France. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Gardner. 1791.

Our author comes late into the field, and repeats various arguments already employed and considered. On the whole, he appears a candid and dispassionate writer, tinged too much with the modern levelling and innovating spirit, urging some positions, which we think neither wise, politic, nor expedient. His opposition to Mr. Burke is firm and temperate; chiefly successful where he combats his too warm zeal for the church, or where Mr. Burke praises, too liberally, the calm comfortable repose of despotism. The various quotations from Virgil, &c. are not always apposite or useful: we should have thought them designed to show the author's learning, if he had not given better and less obtrusive proofs of it in every page.

Reflections on the Revolution in France, by the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, considered; also, Observations on Mr. Paine's Pamphlet, intituled the Rights of Men; with cursory Remarks on the Prospect of a Russian War, and the Canada Bill now pending. By James Edward Hamilton, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1791.

Mr. Hamilton is an admirer of Mr. Burke's Reflections; but, after having analysed Aristotle's Treatise on Government, he tries the British senator on the statutes promulgated by the Stagyrite, convicts, and condemns him, sometimes with little justice, and less consideration. We cannot deny our author the praise of learning, but that judgment is not always concomitant, is sufficiently proved by Mr. Hamilton recommending Mr. Burke as the legislator of France, to be invited by the national assembly, and France itself to become a member of the British empire. He considers the conduct of this assembly to have been essentially and fundamentally wrong; that the voters in election should not be labourers, or those concerned in trade, but persons living on a given fortune, which, to qualify any person as elector, should be different, in places where the value of money varies.

Our author's opposition to Mr. Paine is short, and consists only of wholesome chastisement for his illiberality, and a slight reprehension for some of his contradictions. Mr. Hamilton's political and financial observations by no means deserve our applause—or even a moment's reflection.

Lettre Familiere d'un Whig Anglois, a un Membre de l'Assemblée Nationale de France. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

This lively and sensible Letter is destined to explain the nature of the English constitution, and the principles of our revolution, to a French correspondent. Our author differs from Dr. Price and Mr. Burke, but he approaches nearer to the latter than the former. The revolution he divides into two periods, that of the convention,

convention, and the subsequent settlement of the crown: in neither, he adds, did the constitution lose or gain any thing. 'The political right of cashiering kings, which did not exist in the constitution, I do not believe exists at present; the natural right of resisting tyrants, which the nation always possessed, I think it still possesses.'

In the first of the periods mentioned, the English were influenced by self-defence, 'a right not political, not civil, but natural; an unalienable right, which government can neither give nor take away; a right which every human law allows to individuals. Why then should they not allow it to the nation? The spirit of the second period was regulated and directed by the laws, which form the constitution. I stop at the first period, and ask if it is credible, that the nation, at the moment they employed this necessary right, would *abdicate* it for their posterity? I go on to the second, and ask, in turn, how the constitution, when re-established, could abrogate that right which was employed in its restoration?'

Such is the clear decisive reasoning of the author. It is to be wished that we may see this Letter in an English dress, by the author's own hand.

A Letter from a Magistrate to Mr. William Rose, of Whitehall, on Mr. Paine's Rights of Men. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1791.

While solemn resolutions of societies, indiscriminate praises of men, whose minds party alone could have warped or diverted from the proper bias, and even meaner artifices have been employed to disseminate Mr. Paine's pamphlet; we have not been so apprehensive for the event, as astonished at the appearances and conduct. If any position was indisputably clear, it seemed to us unequivocally certain, that the 'Rights of Men' was a work violent, impudent, inconsequential, and absurd. Yet this work has had its advocates among men of undisputed judgment, and we believe undoubted integrity. What is that mist then, which gives to every object tinged by party, its own hue, which blends the judgment and distorts the most plain and the best proportioned objects? As the epithets we have assigned to Mr. Paine have been applied to Mr. Burke, is has made us look nearer home, and enquire if we ourselves are not influenced by a similar deception? We have again surveyed the whole subject, we have scrutinized it with care, we have followed consequences up to their original source, we have compared events which, with a similar origin, have been distorted and changed in their progress. We cannot find any fallacy in the following maxims; mankind are not equal in their bodily or their mental powers; man, in a social state, must exist in degrees and subordination; from
subordination

subordination political ranks arise, of which the superior, while they possess greater power, ought, and generally are, obliged to use that power for the benefit of the whole; the jarring passions, the interests of mankind, require that this power, distributed among a number, should be so regulated, that too much should not be engrossed by one, or that those who from their superiority have obtained, should use it with discretion and propriety; as it is to be employed for the benefit of the whole, those who are governed ought to have a share, but it should be conducted in such a way as not to cause tumult, and that share should not be assigned to one or two, who might become greater tyrants with this power, than those they were to oppose. The executive power, to be consistent with vigour and dispatch, should be in one person; and the contenders for power, both in the representatives of the people and of the aristocracy, will be a necessary and in general a sufficient counter-balance. This brings us very near to the English constitution, which, if not perfect, is certainly most excellent. If the levellers contend that genius is not hereditary, that knowledge does not descend with titles, it may be replied, that the continual additions to the nobility compensate any defect that may be dreaded; and it may be asked in turn, whether knowledge and cultivated minds are to be expected from those whose talents have been matured by study, who have had frequent opportunities of improvement, or from those who have laboured in the confined sphere of a commis at the table of an attorney, or have been engaged in the laborious and useful employments of the plough, or the mechanical powers? In short, from every view that we can take, we are convinced that the specious declamations of modern refiners are not only trifling but dangerous; that the proposed innovations are replete with 'ills that we know not of' infinitely more dangerous than those we feel. This is also the opinion of our author, who has followed Mr. Paine's arguments more minutely than they deserve. This magistrate received a letter, signed William Rose, dated Whitehall, requesting him to procure half a dozen of Mr. Paine's pamphlets, and circulate them in his neighbourhood. One he did procure, and it served him as the subject of his present remarks, which are in general just, ingenious, and pertinent. Mr. William Rose of Whitehall seems not to have been discovered.

An Answer to Dr. Priestley's Letters to the Right Hon. Edmund Burke. In a Letter to the Author. By a Layman, of the established Church. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1791.

We still consider Dr. Priestley as one of the most able and judicious of Mr. Burke's antagonists. The Layman replies shortly; he skirmishes at a distance, and perhaps is right. 'The whif and wind of his' antagonist's 'fell sword' might destroy him.

A Short

A Short Letter to the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, on his strange Conduct in the House of Commons on Friday last, in which some Observations are made on the Impeachment and the French Revolution. By a Member of Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1791.

This is an animated, a violent Philippic against Mr. Burke, for his introducing the subject of the French Revolution in the debate on the Canada bill. It was indeed a subject of astonishment, to see the business of a great nation stopped, to hear abstract questions of the rights of men and the propriety of innovations discussed by two hostile opponents, once the dearest friends. Yet a respect for these two former friends in some degree permitted it, from different motives; and it was only regretted that it had not been at first checked. Our author is too violent, not to be suspected, but, with a boldness of language, an energy of manner, and a peculiar choice of severe expressions, he vents the warmest indignation, and occasionally even the most virulent abuse. Wild, absurd, and inconsistent, are some of the seasonings of this controversy; but while we have for many years heard of Mr. Burke's integrity, we know not why he should be at last impeached of insincerity. Surely his former friends might have supposed him weak rather than treacherous; misguided and mistaken rather than deceitful or dishonest.

Serious Enquiries into the Motives and Consequences of our present Armament against Russia. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1791.

The present armament has been repeatedly the theme of discussion in both houses of parliament; and the arguments on each side are already known to political readers, who can be at no loss to form their opinions on the subject. The author of the pamphlet is strongly against a war with Russia; and in this we should heartily join with him, were we certain that a temporary loss to the nation would not be overbalanced by the prevention of future misfortune. It is difficult to form a right judgment of such affairs without the knowledge of every circumstance; and this, we are ready to admit, cannot always be obtained with safety by the public, pending a negotiation.

A short Seasonable Hint, addressed to the Landholders and Merchants of Great Britain, on the Alarm of a War with Russia. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

This author treats of the same subject, and employs chiefly the same arguments, with the preceding pamphlet. His principles, therefore, require no farther observation; we must, however, demur with regard to the assertion, that the Porte was the aggressor in the present war with Russia; for we believe that the imprisonment of the Russian ambassador at Constantinople, which he assigns as the cause of the war on the part of the empress, CRIT. REV. N. AR. (II.) May, 1791. I proceeded,

proceeded, in reality, from the discovery of a hostile combination concerted by the Imperial crowns.

Thoughts on the Canada Bill, now depending in Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

The Canada bill being at present under the deliberation of parliament, it would be unbecoming for us to enter upon the consideration of the subject. Besides, the constitution intended for Canada, has not yet been laid before the public. We only are informed, that it will bear an affinity to the constitution of Great Britain; and indeed we know not of any model more likely to afford happiness to the subjects.

A comparative Review of the Administration of Mr. Hastings, and Mr. Dundas, in War and in Peace. By Ralph Broome, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1791.

Mr. Broome has, in our opinion, instituted a comparison, where there is not a sufficient similarity of circumstances to justify any positive conclusion from the premises; and in general, the view which he delineates is liable to this objection. He considers the present war in the East Indies as highly impolitic on the part of Great Britain; but with what justice he ascribes it entirely to Mr. Dundas, is a point which, to speak candidly, may at least be questioned.

Two Letters addressed to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, and the Hon. Henry Hobart, on the Conduct adopted respecting the Colchester Petition. By George Tierney, Esq. 4to. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

Mr. Tierney complains of the determination of the house of commons, respecting the Colchester election, "that Jackson and Thornton, sitting members, and Tierney, petitioner, formed **THREE parties**," while, in the case of Poole, which he considers as similar, the house adjudged that there were only two parties. So much for the subject of the letters. We leave the house of commons to determine concerning their own privileges.

The Speech of Sir William Young, Bart. delivered in Parliament on the Subject of the Slave Trade, April 19, 1791. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1791.

Sir William Young being desirous, for particular reasons, that his speech on the slave-trade should be accurately detailed, has himself contributed to the present publication, by the assistance of his notes. He was one of those who spoke against the abolition of the slave-trade. In a moral view, he professes himself a determined enemy to that traffic; which he admits to be repugnant to humanity, though he thinks that the objections

objections urged against it are greatly exaggerated. Sir William argues with much force, upon political principles; but we are glad to find, that while he opposes the expediency of a sudden and total abolition of the trade, he expresses a confidence that all the horrors attending it will immediately decline, and that, in a short time, the trade itself will entirely cease.

Correct List of the Minority on Mr. Grey's Motions, moved in the House of Commons, Tuesday, April 12, 1791, on the Approach of a Russian War. 8vo. 6d. Debrett.

After Mr. Grey had moved his resolutions, lord Belgrave moved the previous question; when the house being divided, the majority for the minister was eighty. The names of the 173 members, who supported Mr. Grey's motion, are printed in the pamphlet in red letters; which is all we need say on the subject.

The Rights of Kings. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1791.

The title is an imposing one, for we supposed that the author had charity enough to defend the oppressed, and be the advocate of kings. His work, however, is perspicuous and masterly. The author knows the full power of his argument, and urges it with force: he knows its weakness, and presses it not on the infirm side. The power of the people is acknowledged, and to them must recourse be had in cases of difficulty. But the hereditary nature of the crown was equally acknowledged at the Revolution, by the language and conduct of the politicians of that æra; and this our author does not—he cannot elude. The objections to the French Revolution, we mean not Mr. Burke's, but those of less prejudiced enquirers, he evades or perverts. To take away the despotic power of the nobles and the king was justifiable and proper; to trample each under their feet, and to unite the legislative with the executive power, may be justifiable, as men may do 'what they please with their own;' but it was not wise, it was not salutary, it was not humane. They are, however, forming their government, and by their fruits they must be known.

A Narrative of the Incidents which form the Mystery, in the Family of General Gunning. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Taylor. 1791.

The Case of Miss Gunning, impartially stated and discussed. 8vo. 1s. Adams. 1791.

The transaction relative to Miss Gunning is too fashionable a topic of conversation not to encourage the vigilant race of Grubstreet authors to avail themselves of the public curiosity concerning it. To this motive alone are we indebted for the two pamphlets now before us; which are nothing more than the narrative and affidavits, collected from those of Mrs. Gunning and captain

Bowen, without one observation, of any consequence at least, on the subject.

N O V E L S.

The Adventures of King Richard Cœur de Lion, to which is added, the Death of Lord Falkland, a Poem. By J. White, Esq. Author of Earl Strongbow, &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Evans. 1791.

Mr. White no longer employs the thread-bare story of old manuscripts, nor breaks the chain of the narrative by introductions as tedious as those of the Arabian Nights Entertainments. His volumes are consequently more entertaining. But if he wishes that this work should be considered as a supplement to the general history, an account of the minuter events, which history deigns to record, he should not contradict it. These volumes, for instance, contain a supposed narrative of the adventures of our first Richard, after his deliverance from captivity, in his return home; but the author seems not to have been aware, that Richard did not return through Germany to Antwerp. The parliamentary speeches on the impeachment on the grand justiciary, the bishop of Ely, as a pleasant satire, we should not remark on with too much critical fastidiousness; but subsidies were not in fashion in those ages, and this is a constitutional doctrine that should not have been mistated. On the whole, however, this work is very pleasing and entertaining. The costume are preserved with skill and care; and though Richard sometimes reminds us too much of the Knight of the Woeful Countenance, and, though some of the adventures are a little ludicrous, yet the gravest muscles of our corps we have seen often relaxed, when the work was read in full divan. Mr. White, in his preface, 'settles the account' of the neglect and praise of his former volumes, with much spirit and pleasantry; the powers of his invention also, after the description of the Guebre City, and the Voyage to the North Pole, cannot be impeached.—The Poem on the Death of Lord Falkland contains some spirited and poetical lines; but the merit of its different parts is very unequal.

Lidora, an Ancient Chronicle. By M. de Gorgy, author of Blansay, Victorina, and St. Alma. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Lane. 1791.

This Ancient Chronicle, like the Tales of other Times, is entertaining and interesting. It pretends not, however, to real antiquity, nor is it a successful imitation: modern refinements glare through the veil, and the political speculations of our reforming neighbours give a striking hue to the whole. M. de Gorgy contrasts the oppressive with the benevolent lords, but gives the victory to the latter.

M I S.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

The Eccentricities of John Edwin, Comedian, collected from his Manuscripts, and enriched with several Hundred original Anecdotes. Arranged and digested by Anthony Pasquin, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 8s. Strachan. 1791.

These are the excentricities of Anthony Pasquin; and very excentric they are. We were for a time amused, but no little indignation was excited, when we found this—‘fine nomine corpus,’ ‘vox & præterea nihil,’ dispensing his critical decisions, with a positiveness equal only to his errors and inconsistencies. He rails, for instance, at Swift, and pronounces that no one can read three of his pages; and yet, in more than one passage, the wit of Swift is retailed and attributed to Edwin. When we come to the comedian’s character—‘the beams of glory which irradiated his mind’—‘the bright effulgence,’—‘his mind, *like the sun*, adding beauties to the object,’ the comparison of Edwin to sir Robert Walpole—it was too much:—and all this for the buffo of a farce, a performer of merit, in representing, with rigid correctness, ridiculous characters, without a trait which rendered him respectable as a man of virtue, of correct morals, or exemplary sobriety. Swift shares in the abuse with some of the first writers of this age, and all merit is confined to the actor and his biographer. Some of the scenes made our sides ach indeed with laughter, and our hearts ach on reflecting that we had been *so* entertained; yet critical justice requires us to except from the condemnation the criticism on the School for Scandal. It deserved a better place.

An Historical Dictionary of Love. Containing interesting Anecdotes of distinguished Persons, eminent for their Virtues or their Vices. From the Creation of the World to the present Time. Translated from the French. 3 Vols 12mo. 9s. sewed. Butters. 1791.

These anecdotes are not unpleasing; but the only deduction to be drawn from them is that love is out of fashion. The stories are all old; but we cannot add, well known, for they are often collected from the obscurest pages of the forgotten historians. Are there no modern instances of the powers of love? Or must they be looked for—in the records of Doctors Commons?

Anecdotes of Archery, ancient and modern. By H. G. Oldfield, 12mo. 2s. Egertons. 1791.

What was formerly a necessary article of defence is now only the means of an elegant and salutary recreation, to which, from the association of ladies, decorum and elegance give the most pleasing zest. These anecdotes are entertaining and sufficiently copious, but they afford no particular subject of remark. The uni-

versality of the bow, a weapon not very simple or obvious, might on another occasion suggest some remarks of curiosity at least, if not of importance.

Reflections on the Distinction usually adopted in Criminal Prosecutions for Libel; and on the Method lately introduced of pronouncing Verdicts in consequence of such Distinction. By A. Highmore, Jun. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1791.

Having expatiated so fully on this subject in a former article, we need only observe that the author of these Reflections contends very ably that the jury ought to make no distinction in their verdict between the law and the fact.

Extracts of Letters from Arthur Philip, Esq. Governor of New South Wales, to Lord Sydney; to which is annexed, a Description of Norfolk Island. By Philip Gidley King, Esq. and an Account of Expences incurred in transporting Convicts to New South Wales. 4to. 2s. Debrett. 1791.

From a careful perusal of these Letters, the settlement at New South Wales appears in a more prosperous state than we had reason to apprehend. The utility of the scheme must be ascertained by future experience. Norfolk Island, from the description, seems to be very fertile, and the most proper spot for the earliest and principal colony.

Advice to Unmarried Women; to recover and reclaim the Fallen; and to prevent the Fall of Others into the Snares and Consequences of Seduction. 12mo. 4d. Rivingtons. 1791.

We can only wish success to the author's benevolent designs, and recommend his advice as plain, familiar, and practical.

The Reform; or, an Account of an Undertaking for the employment and reform of the Destitute and Profligate Poor. No. 1. 8vo. 4d. Johnson. 1791.

The first Number of the transactions of a very respectable Society, whose objects are the employment and reform of 'vagrants, persons discharged from goals; those driven by distress to criminal courses, distressed seamen and soldiers, unprotected, and unfortunate young women;' and in general all who have not the means of an honest support.

Proceedings in a Cause, tried at Westminster Hall, on Wednesday, Feb. 2nd, 1791, before Lord Kenyon and a Special Jury, between Mr. Charles Ryland, Plaintiff, and Mr. Henry Churchill, Defendant; for an Unjust and Malicious Suspension. 8vo. 2s. Richardson. 1791.

This cause was tried at Westminster Hall, on the second of February last, before Lord Kenyon and a special jury. Mr. Charles

Charles Ryland, chief mate of the Walpole East-Indiaman, was plaintiff; and Mr. Henry Churchill, defendant; for an unjust and malicious suspension. The jury found a verdict for the plaintiff, in five hundred pounds damages, and costs. The trial was taken down in short hand by Mr. Blanchard, whose accuracy in that employment is well known to the public.

Another Sketch of the Reign of George III. from the Year 1780 to 1790. Being an Answer to a Sketch, &c. Part I. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1791.

The author of this pamphlet, on account, as he informs us, of the lateness of the season for publication, does not deduce his history beyond the dissolution of the parliament in 1784; but he intends a second part, which will be published towards the close of the year. Perhaps it might have been better, had he delayed the whole till that time, for we suspect that the curiosity of the public for the remainder of the author's plan will not be much excited by this specimen. His design undoubtedly was to give such a representation of the affairs of government, from the year 1780 to 1790, as would form a contrast to the narrative lately published concerning that period; but, instead of a detail of events, the pamphlet consists chiefly of a series of digressions, intermixed occasionally, with commentaries on the 'Sketch.' The author well knowing that it is easier to bend arguments than facts to harmonize with any system, confines himself chiefly to the former. He attempts to vindicate the 'Coalition,' by a theory deduced from the abstract principles of morals; but this, we apprehend, will be considered as too far-fetched an apology. We think with him, that the coalition has proved not a little prejudicial to the popularity of the parties which adopted it. In support of men, rather than of principles, the author is a zealous advocate, and not void of ingenuity.

An impartial Review of the Life and Writings, public and private Character, of the late Rev. Mr. John Wesley. Interspersed with a Variety of curious, entertaining, and authentic Anecdotes. In Two Parts. Part I. Written and collected by his Nephew, John Annesley Colet. 8vo. 1s. Printed for the Author. 1791.

Mr. Colet, who is the grandson of Mr. Wesley's sister, thinks himself better fitted to write the Life of this Apostle of the Methodists than the followers of Mr. Wesley. We cannot at present confute or establish his pretensions, for of the Impartial Review only the introduction is published, which contains little that was not before known. We shall therefore not anticipate future biographers, by any remarks on the character of Mr. Wesley. Those who are not acquainted with him ought to write his life; and we could wish to see it written with that mild spirit, that elegant simplicity, which constantly distinguished every produc-
tion

tion of John Wesley*, where the cant and enthusiasm of a sect had no place.

Aphoristic Observations proposed to the Consideration of the Public, Respecting the Propriety of admitting Theatrical Amusements into Country Manufacturing Towns. By Rowland Hill, A. M. Small 8vo. 1s. Matthews. 1790.

The magistrates having permitted theatrical exhibitions at Wooton Underedge, the residence of Mr. Hill, he has published this small, mild, and Socratic persuasive against stage-plays. He has adduced some arguments against their being introduced into small manufacturing towns; but, on the general question, has advanced nothing but what has been repeatedly said, and as often confuted. Before he again quotes the wise Greeks and virtuous Romans, we would recommend to his perusal the works of Aristophanes, Terence, and Plautus.

A Descriptive Catalogue of upwards of eleven hundred Species and Varieties of Herbaceous or Perennial Plants. By John Græfer. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Smeeton. 1790.

The great object of this work, it is said, is to enable the gardener to obtain a regular succession of the most beautiful flowers; but in the Catalogue, flowers, culinary herbs, and weeds, are mixed. The Catalogue is alphabetical, and the Latin names are preferred: those, therefore, who can use this work will scarcely want its assistance. We are not unacquainted with the merit of M. Græfer, though we think this pamphlet will scarcely add to his fame.

A Catalogue of the scarce Books and Manuscripts of the Chevalier d'Eon, formerly Minister Plenipotentiary, &c. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

While we have admitted curious catalogues into our Journal, we ought not to overlook the advertisement of this singular sale, where swords and trinkets, gowns and gorgets, boots and bouquets, which have contributed to adorn the same person, are combined.

Tu felix ocreas vendente puella.

The MSS. are very valuable, particularly those which relate to fortification, as they are in general the works of Vauban. Of the printed books the Hebrew ones are most curious.

Prefixed to the catalogue, is a narrative of the cause which occasioned the lady to sell this motley collection of martial splendor and female decoration: it was occasioned by the non-payment of a bond for money lent to the late admiral earl Ferrers. The cause which occasioned the delay or the refusal of payment, is not explicitly mentioned. We doubt not but the remaining relatives can, if they please, explain it satisfactorily.

* We mean no reflection by this plain appellation: we knew him well, and greatly respected him.